

*

THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL

GRAMMAR

OF THE

FRENCH TONGUE,

IN WHICH

THE PRESENT USAGE ON PRONUNCIATION, ORTHOGRAPHY, AND THE RULES OF SYNTAX IS DEVELOPED,

AND

ALL. GREAT DIFFICULTIES CLEARED UP.

ACCORDING TO THE DECISIONS

OF THE

FRENCH ACADEMY.

BY M. DE LÉVIZAC.

While ex grammatica nowerst, nisi quod supervacuum est.... von obstant hæ disciplinæ per illas euntibus, sed circa illas hærentibus. QUINT, JUST, L. I. GAP. 7.

LONDON:

And sold by A. Dulau & Co., No. 107, Wardour-Street,

1799.

[Price Four Shillings bound.]

[Entered at Stationers Hall.]

Sold also by
T. Boosey, Broad Street, near the Royal Exchange.
EARLE and HEMET, the corner of Frith and Church Streets,
Soho, or No. 47, Albemarle-Street, Piccadilly.
And by

COOK; W. HANWELL and J. PARKER, Oxford. DEIGHTON; and LUNN, Cambridge. BARRAT, Bath. MANNERS and MILLER, Edinburgh. And AECHER, Dublin.

PREFACE.

THIS Grammar was, at first, intended solely for my own use; but reasons of a peculiar nature, and which I did not well know how to resist, have induced me to consent to its publication. To these reasons I may add another still more powerful, my wish to extend to a greater number of individuals the rapid progress made by the few who have followed its method, and thus to evince my most heartfelt gratitude towards a nation, from which I have received the most flattering encouragements, and which has bestowed upon me the only praise I am most emulous to deserve: that of having, in some measure, contributed to the instruction of youth, during my stay in England. If the works which I have hitherto published have met with such distinguished marks of approbation *, what may I not hope from this, which I presume to hope will prove of more general utility, and which, for this reason, I have composed with the utmost care and attention? Happy, indeed, shall I deem myself, as also most amply rewarded, if my labours can save youth one single tear, inspire it with one single honest sentiment, develope one single idea,

^{**} See Analytical Review for September, 1797, page 304, and for October, 1798. page 423; British Critic, for May, 1798, page 90; Monthly Review, for May, 1798, page 87, for June, page 219, Appendix to the 26th vol. page 558, and 563. Critical Review for July 1798, page 346, and the Appendix to the 23d vol. page 549, &c.

just, noble or sublime, or, in short, furnish it with one single principle of taste.

In order to ensure to this work the greatest possible degree of utility, I have, in imitation of the most celebrated grammarians, as well as of the Academy, suppressed every thing foreign to the genius of our language; and I have been particularly careful to give, in the most plain and perspicuous manner, the only rules we acknowledge, and to admit the only denominations we arow. I have given the grammar which has long been taught in the University of Paris, and not the grammar of the Grecians and Latinists of the last, and the beatinning of the present century, because, as the Abbé Girard expresses it: "we ought to speak French, in speaking about French."

It will not, therefore, appear surprising that I should continue to proscribe that multitude of articles, and those denominations of cases, which the want of knowledge of the real genius of our language had introduced, and which, in fact, did only impede the progress, and retard the unfolding of our ideas. In point of art or science, every thing that is not perfectly clear, or obviously useful, should be rejected, as tending to obscure the subject.

"The custom of studying the French language, but for the mere purpose of learning Latin," says one of the most enlightened members of the French National Institute, "induced the greatest part of grammarians to frame the rules of our grammar upon those of the Latin: hence the Gothic introduction of declersions into a language which has no cases, &c.

French was learned, as it were, in Latin; how could it be expected that it should ever be properly known? But philosophy, whose illuming flambeau had dispersed so much darkness, and thrown so great a light upon the exact sciences, made use of the same flambeau in elucidating the art of speech. This art, calculated to bring forth all the others, was well worthy of the attention of metaphysicians and of enlightened minds."

This is the motive that has induced the National Institute to endeavour to find out the most useful and most proper way of teaching the French language. We shall here mention their decision about the cases.

In one of their sittings, last year, they examined the following question: " Are we, or are we not to admit cases in the French language?" Two discourses were then read, which, in the most scientific and critical manner, were intended, the first to prove the existence of cases in all languages, and the second to combat and reject that opinion. After a discussion of some length, the National Institute, unwilling to do any thing but upon serious and mature investigation, commissioned the Abbé Sicard, institutor of the deaf and dumb, to make a report, in which both sides of the question should be compared, and reason opposed to reason: this was done in one of the subsequent sittings. That learned grammarian did not hesitate in taking his determination. "I have," said he, " insisted in a strong manner, with all the modern grammarians, upon the impossibility of admitting cases in those languages in which the nouns, adjectives and articles (the article and other words performing the same function) have invariable forms." In consequence of that report, the National Institute has proscribed *cases* in the public schools where French is taught, a thing which had long been observed in the University of Paris.

Having proscribed the multiplicity of articles and the denominations of cases, one may naturally suppose that I would not be more favourable to that disdinction between conjoined and disjoined pronouns, imagined with as little foundation by the ancient grammarians, and which has been exploded in France for these fifty years, as calculated only to introduce obscurity and intricacy into a subject already but too obscure and intricate of itself.

There is another alteration which I also wished to make, viz. in the denominations of verbs, borrowed likewise from the Latin grammar; but, after some reflection, I thought I might preserve them, because, as I say in the "Table of correspondence of the moods and tenses," they are attended with very little inconvenience, as long as the definitions are clearly understood.

From what I have been saying, could any one still appose that the alterations which I have proposed, and those which I bring forward in this work, are the private system of a few grammarians, and not the public method of teaching the French language? I would not have been so positive in my assertions, had they not been warranted by the most celebrated grammarians, by the University of Paris, by the French

Academy, and by the National Institute, who ought to know better than any body the proper way of teaching the French language.

With respect to the plan of this grammar, I have, as much as possible, followed the march of the human mind. In the first nine chapters, I have presented the ideas one by one, that they may be conceived without confusion. The learner will find no other rules of syntax, that is, of government and concord, but what are absolutely necessary for the connexion of ideas: nevertheless, they are treated in such a manner, as, by the help of the exercises which I have subjoined, to show the whole mechanism of the language. It is only in the tenth that we give the grand rules and principal difficulties; and they are more or less developed, according to their degree of importance: the reason is, that the mind of the learner being then prepared to receive them, finds no difficulty in understanding the theory and making the application to practice: and, therefore, I have a little deviated in that chapter from my first plan, by making reflections and entering into discussions, which I had before deemed improper.

A grammar which is intended to teach foreigners a language, ought to be comparative. In the comparison which I have made between the English and French, I have considered that two languages are compared in their principles, not in their expressions. There are, indeed, some idiomatical differences which ought to be remarked; but they are only such as constitute the genius of one of those languages, and even this is but momentary, as the learner finds these com-

parisons in the examples before him; and should he pass over those differences unperceived, the teacher ought to be careful in pointing them out. Having learned the English language long before I came to England, it would have been easy for me to multiply those sorts of comparison; but my own experience has convinced me that it was nothing but a loss of time.

My design being to give, in a single volume, and a pretty short one, considering the great number of exercises which it contains, every thing that was essentially necessary for arriving at a perfect knowledge of the French language, I have paid the greatest attention to that part which relates to sounds, and which is the more important, as upon that knowledge good pronunciation depends. I have every reason to think that I have elucidated it to a certain degree. In it will be found the present usage, and the pronunciation of the inhabitants of the metropolis, who have lived in the great world, and frequented the best companies. I have also made a distinction, as far as I have thought necessary, between the pronunciation of familiar conversation, and that of oratorical discourse and poetry, because I thought that distinction was not sufficiently known or attended to. That I might give to this little treatise a still greater degree of utility, I have added to it the theory of the three properties of syllables, which are accent, aspiration and quantity, with some reflections on the manner of reading well. However, as in so short a treatise it was impossible for me to enter into every minute detail, I have every reason to hope that teachers will

supply the want of them*: but, at all events, one may find some advantage in consulting The Explanatory Pronouncing Dictionary of the French Language by the Abbé Tardy, which seems to me well calculated for facilitating the pronunciation, if one studies the key.

To complete the subject, I have given, at the end of the grammar, a treatise upon orthography and another on punctuation.

With respect to the first, I have conformed myself to the last edition of the Dictionary of the French Academy, because, in a work intended for the instruction of foreigners, there ought to be no deviation from the decisions of that tribunal, the sole competent judge on this matter. Here, the man who professes to be a sure guide, must sacrifice his own private opinion, because it would be deceiving foreigners to give them, as the orthography of a language, that which is but the ill-digested system of one particular author.

Should any errors have escaped me in the course of the work, and I think it almost impossible that there should be none, considering the great number of objects I have had to mention, I request the persons who may find any, to point them out to me: they will see how thankful I am for their advice, by the care I shall take to correct them. As my labours have no other object in view than public utility, I

^{*} For further particulars about pronunciation, I must refer to my Treatise on the Sounds of the French Language, now in the press.

shall spare neither trouble nor expence to remove every faulty sheet by a cancel.

Thus much had I to say about the theory of this grammar; it only remains for me to say a few words about the practical part of it.

I have made it as practical as it is possible for a grammar to be, both as to the order and connexion of ideas, and with regard to the exercises, which I have extended or contracted in proportion to their utility. If the method of proceeding, which I am going to point out, be strictly followed, there can be no doubt but that the learner will, in a short time, become acquainted with the mechanism of the language, and find in his progressive knowledge a strong incitement to wish for further improvement. This is my reason for placing at the head of the exercises what the learner is to observe, and for giving them a gradual increase of usefulness or difficulty. I know very well that teachers would have said the same things that I do; but I likewise know that the pupil has frequently forgotten every thing they have taken the trouble to say, even before they have left him. But having the rule before him, no pretence, no excuses can be admitted, should he fail to conform to it.

Let it be remembered that the pupil must proceed mechanically through the first nine chapters: he is to know no other rules than those which he will find in them, because they are the only ones he is able to understand. It is not till the tenth chapter, that is, when all the common constructions are known to him, that he finds himself enabled to see the reason of the preceding operations. One will then be astonished at the

facility with which all the ideas will successively enter into his head and class themselves in regular order. I have myself tried the experiment, and have it in my power to warrant the success of the method.

The exercises have two objects; the first, to give the pupil the facility of conversation; the second, to form his mind, heart and taste.

For this purpose, I have inserted the elements of conversation into the first nine chapters, particularly into the exercises upon the verbs. When they have been gone over, the pupil will know the construction of all the forms of phrases, and have his memory stored with a multitude of the words that most usually occur. But, true to my plan, I have interspersed some passages calculated to improve the judgment and taste, because that is the chief object of this grammar.

My second object I have endeavoured to accomplish in the exercises on the tenth chapter. As they are intended to prepare the pupil for the study of rhetoric, or to teach him how to distinguish the beauties of all places and of all times, from beauties which are either accidental, local, or depending upon circumstances, I have, now and then, thrown in, either some fine descriptions, noble and sublime thoughts, or notions upon all those kinds of knowledge which distinguish the well-bred gentleman from him that has received but a common education. In short, nothing will be found in it but what can furnish youth with just ideas, honest sentiments, a sound judgment, the love of the belles lettres, or a greater nicety of taste.

I shall conclude, by observing that I had already gone some way into the translation of this grammar, which, as I have before hinted, was originally written in French, when the impatient desire of my friends to see it speedily published, obliged me to desist from an undertaking, which the multiplicity of business upon my hands would not permit me to forward so soon as I could have wished. I have, therefore, requested the assistance of a man of great literary abilities, and whose thorough knowledge of both languages is already known by some of his translations; and I trust he will be found to have acquitted himself with credit to the work and satisfaction to the public.

MEANS TO BE ADOPTED IN ORDER TO HASTEN THE PROGRESS OF THE PUPIL.

THE first three or four lessons should be devoted to make the pupil thoroughly acquainted with the pronunciation of the 19 or 20 French vowels, and to learn the chapter on the substantive. When he is come to the formation of the plural, he must begin to learn the auxiliary verb avoir, and make the exercises upon it.

When the chapter on the substantive is gone through, he is to learn the formation of the feminine gender and the plural of adjectives. As soon as he is perfect in this, he must turn back and begin the

article.

In this manner, the pupil must learn, at the same time, the sounds, the first four chapters, and the verbs. It rests with the teacher to fix how much is to be learnt of each of these three objects, from one lesson to another: this will depend entirely upon the quickness

of apprehension in the pupil.

Let no one think that this method is too complicated. I can assert, from my own experience, that it is not so; but, on the contrary, very simple. I have tried the experiment, both with persons whose judgment was already formed, and with children: and my success has been the same; that is, on the very first day, my pupils have seen clearly, and very clearly, into the object of their study.

Every eight lessons, a general recapitulation should be made of every thing that has preceded, the better to impress it upon the mind. This is a matter of great importance, and which ought not to be neglected.

As soon as the first five chapters are gone over, the work becomes more simple and easy; the pupil

has only to follow the grammar.

As the pupil is reading, he should be asked to give the reason of every sound, according to the different tables which I have given in the first part.

Whea

When the pupil is come to the tenth chapter, some alteration must be made to the plan pursued till then. Care must be taken to make him point out the words to which the rule applies, and the nature of every word composing the sentence given as an application: because, as he has now seen the nine kinds of words, he ought to know them immediately, without mistaking their proper use, and the reason of their being in such or such a place. The only thing to be attended to by the teacher is, never to anticipate upon the rules which have not yet been seen. None can truly be said to know a language, but when every expression that is used can be properly accounted for.

After the tenth chapter, no more exercises are given, because the pupil must by this time be very far advanced; and, as he has seen not only all the rules, but also all the difficulties of the language, he needs no longer to be guided by a particular rule: it is time he should enter a larger field, and bring the whole of his knowledge into use. For this reason, we have, now and then, left some examples untranslated, on purpose to try his ingenuity. While he is studying the last four chapters, he should make the free exercises which

are at the end of the grammar.

Another thing which I deem very essential, and perhaps more so than is commonly thought, is that the rules and definitions should be learned both in English and French. The abridgment of my grammar which is translated in this, all to a few alterations, occasioned by the last edition of the dictionary of the French Academy, should be learned along with this, as soon as the pupil is able to understand a little French. I can confidently affirm that nothing is better calculated to hasten his progress:

EXPLANATION

OF THE ABREVIATIONS USED IN THE EXERCISES.

```
m. stands for masculine.
  f. . . feminine.
                 . plur:l.
                 . singular.
  pr. . . preposition.
  art. . . . article.
  pr. art. . . .
                   article contracted.
  pro. . . . pronoun.
  * denotes that the word under which it is placed, is not
                                       expressed in French.
  ind-1.
                . present of the indicative.
ind-2 . . imperfect.
  ınd-3 . .
             . . preterit definite.
  ind-4. . . preterit indefinite.
  ind-5 . . . preterit anterior.
  ind-6. . . pluperfect.
  ind-7 . . . future absolute.
  ind-8 . .
             . . future anterior.
  imp. . . . imperative
  con-1 . . . present of the conditional.
con-2 . . . first conditional past.
con-3 . . second conditional past.
  subj-1 . . present of the subjunctive.
subj-2 . . imperfect.
subj-3 . . present.
subj-4 . . pluperfect.
  inf-1... present of the infinitive.
  inf-2. . . participle present.
  inf-3 . . . participle past.
```

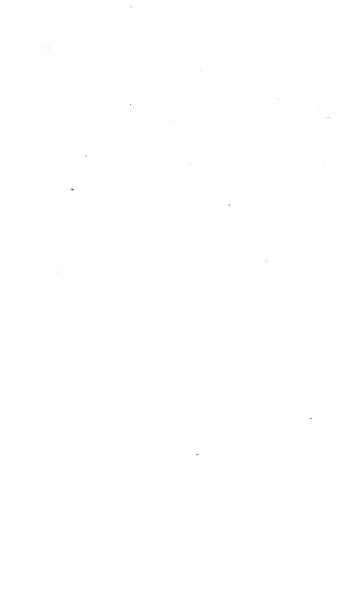
Those French words which are followed by the above

signs, are to take the form which they point out.

N.B. In spite of all the circ we have taken, a few errors will still be found in the exercises, particularly with respect to the * which in some few examples does not always correspond to the word which it is meant to affect. I beg that the teacher will have the goodness to point it out to my pupil, every time it occurs.

In the tenth chapter, the 'is no longer placed under the

word, but after it, in the margin.



THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL

GRAMMAR

OF THE

FRENCH TONGUE.

GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing with correctness.

To speak is to manifest externally, by certain signs upon which men have agreed, the thoughts that are combined internally in our mind.

Nature herself has furnished us those signs, which are the sounds, mechanically produced by the organs of speech: the union of some of these signs forms words.

But, as these signs leave no kind of trace, men wished to fix them, and this they have effected by means of other signs, visible and permanent, which are the characters used in writing.

"Were it not for this double convention," observes Mr. Diderot, "which thus attaches ideas to sounds, and sounds to characters, every thing would remain within man, and be totally lost in him."

We are, therefore, to consider words, both as sounds and as signs of our thoughts.

PART I.

OF WORDS CONSIDERED AS SOUNDS.

The sounds made use of for speaking are called letters, and the collection made of them in a language is called alphabet. The French alphabet contains twenty-five letters, viz.

a, b, c, d,
$$\epsilon$$
, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t,
 u , v , x , y , \approx .

Of these twenty-five letters, some express a sound by themselves, and are called *vowels*; others, only by the help of vowels, and are, therefore, called *consonants*: the combination of these different letters forms syllables.

Whatever relates to sounds will be divided into three chapters: the first will treat of vowels, the se-

cond of consonants, and the third of syllables.

CHAP. I.

OF VOWELS.

There are five vowels, a, c, i, o, u: the y, which we call y gree, is not reckoned as one of them, because it does not differ from the i, when it is not used as two i's.

But these five vowels are not the only ones we have in the French language: we reckon nine more, viz. ϵu , ou, ϵ , ϵ , which are called French, the first five being called Latin; and five nasal, viz. an, ϵn , in, on, un, so called, because they are, in a manner, pronounced through the nose.

Some of these vowels are represented by a single character, or letter, and others by two, which, however, we must not confound with diphthongs, that is, with that combination of yowels which expresses a

double sound.

· OF SIMPLE VOWELS.

Two things are to be considered in vowels, the sound, and the duration of sound.

The sound of a vowel is either broad or slender, as it depends upon the form of the passage which the mouth allows to the air which it emits. Thus, if we place the vowels in this order, a, o, e, i, u, we shall find that the first is the slenderest, and the last the broadest:

The duration of a vowel is the time we are in pro-

nouncing it. This time varies, according as the vowel

is accompanied with such and such letter.

Had languages been the work of reflection, we should have had as many signs as there are vowels; but none can boast of that advantage. To make up this deficiency, we have been obliged to introduce in our language different kinds of a's, e's, o's, and eu's, according as the sound expressed by these letters is flat, or sharp. We shall here speak of the principal sounds only, leaving it to the care of the teacher to show to his pupil those minutiæ of pronunciation which it is hardly possible to represent.

A TABLE OF SIMPLE VOWELS.

å grave påte, dow. i ici, here. a acute patte, pavv. b grave hbte, hest. b acute bonté, goodness. a acute ... bonté, dosser. è grave, common père, father. ... verta, virtue è more open ... firmeté, firmness. ed ... jaûne, fact. è very open ... succès, success. ea acute jaune, young. e mui: ... nesure, measure. cu ... sou, penny.

OLGERVATION.—The e mute has two sounds; the one very short, in the middle and at the end of wilds; the other less short, in monosyllables, such as me, te, se, que, &c., in which it has nearly the sound of eu.

We are, therefore, to distinguish, according to the preceding table, fourteen simple vowels or sounds; but those sounds are sometimes expressed by certain combinations of vowels, which ought, seemingly, take produce different ones.

as has two sounds { a . in Lasn. pasn, and their derivatives. } o . in tasn, Sasne, &c.

ea, without an accent over the e, a; songea, mangea, &c.

ai has four sounds

ai has four sounds

e mute in faisant je faisois, and compounds

e acute in faisant je dinai, je dinerai, &c.

e grave in maître, Launai, &c.

Observation. This combination has the sound of ℓ acute, in the preterit and future tenses of verbs, and of ℓ grave in the middle and at the end of words. According to some grammarians, we are to except

maison and raisin, with their derivatives, and we think the same, notwithstanding many are of a contrary opinion.—With regard to the sound of ai before I or II, we shall speak of it in the next chapter.

eai
ei
have the same sound, è grave, démangeaison, seigneur,
ey
bey, haie.

OBSERVATION. Some grammarians would give to these combinations the sound of ε acute, especially at the end of words; but we do not hold this opinion altogether right.

Pronounce, péisan, abéie, Biaïe, Maïence.

au
have the same sound o . . . bateau, hauteur.

oi, vowel, sounds è or ê faisoient, connoître.

OBSERVATION. Oi is a vowel, having the scand of è grave, 1°, in the imperfect and conditional tenses of verbs, as: je disois, je dirois: 20. in the verbs ending in oftre, which have more than two syllables : 3° in foible and its derivatives; in roide, but not in roidir; in monnoie, and its compounds; in harnois, and Charolois: 4°. in the names of nations frequently spoken of, as: François, Anglois, Polonois, &c. The e mute, in the third person plural of the imperfect and conditional tenses, serves only to lengthen the sound.—N. B. Messrs. Garat, Guinguene, Célis, &c. editors of the Dictionary of the Academy, from the notes left by that illustrious body, intended to have adopted the change of oi into ai, but in the names of nations only. They have not, however, done it, as in this they would have followed their own private opinion, not that of the Academy.

i mute in encoignure.

is in the middle of words, i... je pricrois, reniement.

Observation. On this account, some will omit the e in spelling; but it ought not to be, when writing prose.

wa sounds eu mours, sour, noud.

OBSERVATIONS. 10. a is not pronounced in Askt,

aoûteron, apriste, but it is in aoûté.

20. eu has the sound of u in the different tenses of the verb avoir, as: ck, j'cus, j'cusse, il eut. It is wrong to give this sound to the first syllable of heurens.

3°. gea, geo, geu, are pronounced jai je, in, as: songea, songeons, gageure: in these kinds of words, the e serves merely to soften the sound of g.

OF NASAL VOWELS.

The nasal vowels are formed of some of the preceding sounds, and the letters m or n final. But are these real vowels? This is what the Abbé Régnier, and the Abbé Dangeau have contended. "Whoever will pronounce la nuit est loin encore," says the latter to the academicians, " either will adopt the Norman pronunciation, and say; la nuit est loin-n-encore, or he will put a g after loin, and say: la muit est loing encore; or he will make a little pause between loin and encore: now, the first two ways are wrong; the third alone is right:" whence this learned academician concludes that the nasal vowels are real vowels; and his opinion is almost universally followed.

But the Abbé d'Olivet, who, at first, had adopted it, afterwards thought otherwise, and, although he always acknowledged that they express an indivisible and simple sound, yet he did not hold them to be real vowels, because they retain so far the consonant n_{\bullet} that on its position depends whether that consonant

ought to be sounded or not.

Without entering into a discussion which is foreign to these elements, we shall only point out those cases wherein the consonant n is to be mute or sounded.

GENERAL PRINCIPLE. The nasal termination is never sounded, unless the word containing, and the word following it, be immediately, necessarily and in-

separably united.

Thus, the consonant n is sounded in on, before its verb ; on arrive, on est arrivé, which are pronounced en-n-arrive, on-n-est arrivé: but this pronoun is mute

after the verb: arrive-t-on aujourd'hui? arriva-t-on hier?

It is sounded in the possessive pronouns mon, ton, son, and all adjectives placed before their substantives, as: ton esprit, son ame, bon ange, certain auteur, which are pronounced ton n-esprit, son-n-ame, bon-n-ange, certain-n-auteur: but it is mute in all substantives, and in all adjectives followed by a preposition, as: la maison est belle, bon à monter, bon à descendre. This is conformable to the decision given by the French Academy, in answer to the question from the Academy of Caen.

Such also is en, preposition, which is always sounded, as: en *Italie*, and prenoun, when placed before the verb: je n'en ai point; but we preserve the

mute sound in donnez-m'en un peu.

The adverbs bien and rien are always sounded, as: il est bien élevé, il n'a rien oublié; but, when they are substantives, the nasal sound is preserved.

This principle being thus established, we shall pass

to the nasal terminations.

$$\begin{array}{c}
am \\
an \\
\epsilon an \\
\epsilon m
\end{array}$$
same sound, an
$$\begin{cases}
ambition \\
vendant \\
song \epsilon int \\
\epsilon mploi \\
ending
\end{cases}$$

Exception. Em and en are pronounced as è grave, 1° in words taken from foreign languages: férusalem, triènnal, hymèn. 2° in words ending in en or ien, without any other consonant, and their derivatives, as: examèn, chretièn-té. 3° in the verbs venir, tenir, and their compounds, que je viènne, que j'entretiènne. 4° in words ending in ene and enne, arène, que je prènne, and at the beginning of the word èmemi.

In takes the sound of a, in words ending in ent and ence, and their derivatives: patient, patience, patienter.

Em sounds a in femme, in the adverbs in emment: differenment, imprudemment, &c. and in solemnel and derivatives.

Observation. Ent is not sounded in the third

persons of verbs: it merely serves to lengthen the sound: ils aiment, ils pensent; but, if it be followed by a vowel, then the t is sounded: ils aiment à rire, pronounce, ils aimet à rire.

> same sound ain

EXCEPTION. The sound of i is preserved, $i \circ in$ proper names taken from foreign languages, as: Sélim, Ephraim, which are pronounced as if m were followed by e mute. 2°. in all words where i forms a syllable, as: i-nanimé, i-nodore, i-nhumain. 3°. at the beginning of words in imm or inn, as: innocent, immoler.

Observation. Grammarians do not agree about the nature of this sound. Some will have it to be a very weak i, or a particular sound partaking of the e and the i: others say it is the e followed by a liquid sound. Mr. Duclos thinks it ought to be pronounced ain.

> same sound on donjon nous rongeons partum importun a jeun same sound on

OBSERVATION. The u preserves its natural sound in the adjective un, used in the feminine, as: une femme, or in the masculine before a vowel, or an h mute, as: un esprit, un homme.

Um is sounded om in some words taken from foreign languages, as: factum, duumvir, triumvir, centum-vir, and their derivatives.

OF DIPHTHONGS.

The combinations of vowels already mentioned, form only indivisible and simple sounds; but there are others that give the sound of two vowels at one and the same time, and by a single impulse of the voice: these are called diphthongs.

Two things, therefore, are to be considered in the nature of a diphthong; 1°. that there ought not to be, at least in any sensible manner, two successive motions in the organs of speech; 2° , that the ear ought distinctly to hear the sound of the two vowels in one single impulse of the voice. When I say Dieu, I hear i and eu; and these two sounds are united in one single syllable, and pronounced at one and the same time.

Grammatians do not agree about the number of diphthongs. The following table appears to us the

most exact.

	ai		aih! mail	∫ ian		viande
	202		fiacre	lien		pat <i>ient</i>
(ié		p <i>ie</i> d	ieu		lieu
Ų	iè	:	vielle	ion		pion
ı	iai		biais	iou	•	chiourme
6	oż		loi	οë		moëlle
Ų	eoi		villageois	ouan		Ecouan
ì	ouai		ouais	oua		éq <i>ua</i> tcur
-	oin		loin	oue		ouest
7	ouin		marsouin	0111	*	oui, bouis
4	10		pioche	ue		éc <i>ue</i> lle
7	iau	•	piantre	ui		lui, étui
	ien		rien	uin		q <i>uin</i> quagésime

Observations. I. We have already seen, in the first section of this chapter, the cases wherein oi is pronounced as a vowel; the following are those

wherein it is pronounced as a diphthong.

10. In monosyllables, and in verbs of two syllables ending in oire and oitre, as: moi, froid, bois, sait, &c. croire, croitre: the contrary pronunciation of some women and petits-maîtres is altogether absurd and ridiculous.

20. In polysyllables ending in oi, oie, oir, oire, eoire, as: emploi, courroie, vouloir, observatoire, nageoire.

30. In oi, oy, followed by a vowel, as: ondoiement, royal.

4°. In the middle of words, as: poison, courtoisie.

5°. In the names of nations seldom mentioned, as: Denois, Chinois, Iroquois, &c., except Japonois, which is pronounced as a vowel; François, a man's name, is pronounced as a diphthong.

This diphthong has not always the same sound: the most natural is that followed in Greek, wherein both the o and the i are heard, as in voi-ielle, roi-iaume; but it has also three other sounds, which it is difficult to

represent in writing, and which can only be learnt of a skilful teacher. They are nearly 1°, that of oc, where the e has an open sound, approaching to that of a, as foi, froid; 2°, that of oa, mois, pois; 3°, that of oua, bois; pronounce, foe, moa, boua.

In words where oi is followed by e mute, its sound seems to be a little more open than when it is a simple diphthong: soie, Troic, differ from soi, moi: but this

shade cannot be easily ascertained.

11. Some of these combinations of vowels are diphthongs only in prose: in poetry, they are pronounced as two syllables. Of this kind are ie and ion: we say in poetry hi-cr, vous devri-ez, acti-on, ambiti-on, viz: for ie, in all verbs ending in icr, in riez, souriez; in these verbs which, although they do not end in ier, yet have in their tenses ie preceded by br, tr, dr, vr, as: vous mettri-ez, voudri-ez, &c.; in nouns in the above cases, and whenever ie is followed by a t, as: impi-tté: and io in all cases, except in fiole, pioche.

Oë is but one syllable in boëte, coëffe, moële, poële; but always two, except in common conversation, in poëne, poëte, poésie, poétique. Those who pronounce these last words like the four preceding ones are wrong, especially in the last two, which are now written with é acute, the better to mark the true pronunciation. This is also the opinion of the Academy.

The French have no triphthongs, although they have syllables composed of three vowels, because there is no syllable that conveys three sounds in one single impulse of the voice. Dien and niais (the latter in prose) are only diphthongs, because we hear but two sounds i-en and i-ai: Août, although composed of three vowels, is only a monothong, because we hear only the simple sound on.

CHAP. II.

OF CONSONANTS.

The vowels represent the sounds, or the simple emission of the sonorous air: but the consonants represent the articulations, that is, the explosion which the voice receives by the sudden and instantaneous motion of some of the moveable parts of the organs of speech.

The French language has nineteen consonants, or twenty, if we include the j, which, according to Mr. Duclos, seems to be a consonant in some words. They are b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, y, z.

It is acknowleged as a principle, that a consonant has no sound of itself: to be heard, it must be

accompanied by a vowel.

Some grammarians sound the consonants by means of sonorous vowels, and others by the help of e mute. The first manner has long been the only one in use, and, in this case, the consonants are pronounced bé, cé, dé, éfe, &c. But Messirs. de Port-Royal, who saw the inconvenience to which this gave rise, proposed the second in 1660. This method, by which we pronounce the consonants be, ce, de, fe, &c. remained for some time unattended to, for this reason alone, viz. that it was contrary to the general practice: but it was renewed with success by Messrs. Launai, father and son, and adopted in the typographical Bureau of Mr. Dumas. "This new method," says Mr. Duclos, "inserted in the last edition of the Dictionary of the Academy, and adopted in the best schools, will at last prevail over the old one, on account of the advantages which it must be acknowledged to possess; but it will be the work of time, because it is reasonable." Mr. Duclos was mistaken; for, it has long been the only one in use, even in the most insignificant schools of Paris. It, indeed, possesses very great advantages: by following it, we accustom ourselves to a good pronunciation, as we then give to each syllable its true sound and just value, and get rid of every vicious habit in speaking: this has been experienced in those provinces that were noted for a bad accent. In short, it lessens the difficulties of spelling, since to spell so is to read. If I tell a child to spell these two syllables, fri, pro, I shall find, according to the first method, that ife, err, i, makes éféri, and pé, err, o, makes pcerro. Then, that I may have the true sound of these syllables, I must remove those sounds that are entirely false and

foreign to their pronunciation, an inconvenience to which the other method is not liable, since fe, re, i,

makes at once fri, and pe, re, o, pro.

Every consonant should have but one sound, viz. that which is proper to it; but they often change it according to their position; this we shall call accidental sound, in the following

TABLE OF CONSONANTS, ACCORDING TO THEIR PROPER OR ACCIDENTAL SOUND.

Letters. Names.

B, i. be proper sound ... Babylene, béat, bible, bonnet, Bucéphale.

b, at the beginning of a word, always preserves

its proper sound.

It is always pronounced in the middle of the word,

abdiquer, subvenir, &c.

Likewise, at the end of proper names, fob, Caleb, &c. and in radoub, rumb.

When double, which only happens in abbé, and its derivatives, only one is sounded.

{ que ... proper sound before a, o, u ... cadre, coco, cure. se ... accidental sound before e, i ... ceci. gue ... accidental sound through custom, second, secon-

C, at the beginning and in the body of the word, preserves its proper sound before a, o, u, l, n, r, t, and at the end of the syllable: before u, however, its sound is not quite so hard : clémence, crédulité, Ctésiphon, cupidité. It is not sounded in the middle of words, before q, ca, co, cu, cl, cr: acquérir, accabler, accomplir, accuser, acclamation, accréditer; but it is pronounced with its proper sound before ce, ci: succès, accident. It preserves its accidental sound se, only before e and i, or when there is a cedille under the c: façade, façon, reçu. As to the other accidental sound gue, it is also preserved, according to the practice of some persons, in secret and all its derivatives, though less marked: but the new dictionary of the Academy does not make any mention of it.

At the end of words, it is generally pronounced,

cognac, trictrae, avec, bec, sindic, estoc, aquedue, &ce. and then it has its proper sound; but it is not sounded in broc, clere, mare, jone, trone, Lefrane, almanach, amiet, estomac, tabac, cotignae, lac (a ribband knot) and in done; but this last, only when, in the body of a sentence, it is followed by a consonant. In the adjectives frane and blane, the c is never sounded, except in these expressions: franc étourdi, du blane au noir.

cc are both pronounced only before e and i, succès,

accident.

Let. Names.

D,d. \{ de proper sound ... David, dé, Diane, dodu. t accidental sound, before a vowel, or h mute..grand arbre, grand homme.

D, at the beginning of a word, always preserves its proper sound; and also in the body of it, when followed by a consonant, adjectif, adverbe, &c.

At the end of words, d preserves its proper sound in proper names: Obed, David, and is sounded as t in the other words before a vowel: quand il viendra. It is never sounded in gond, nid and muid; but it sounds in pied, in the expression, de pied en cap, and never in other words before a consonant.

dd are both pronounced, addition, reddition, &c.
F, f. fe proper sound... faveur, féminin, fini, forst, funeste,
which sound is always preserved at the beginning, or

in the middle of words.

Final f is pronounced in juif, nef, actif, expressif, serf, chef, nerf, bænf, vænf; but not in clef, cerf, chef-d'ænvre, nerf de bænf, du bænf-salé, un ænf frais. In neuf signifying new, custom has not decided on the pronunciation of the f, un habit neuf, or neu; but it is never sounded in the plural, des habits neus: we also say des bæns, des æns. In neuf signifying nine, the f sounds like v, before a vowel or h mute, neuf ans, dix-neuf hommes, say: neu-vans: to sound the f so in any other word is altogether wrong. It is not sounded at all before a contact, as: neu-chevanx: but it is sounded where teelf, as: ils étoient neuf.

When

When double, it sounds only like one: affoiblir, effaroucher, offrir, &c.

Ph is pronounced f: philosophie, pharmacic.

Let. Names.

gue proper sound before a, o, u . . . gaer, gorger,

G.g. gianural.

je accidental sound before e, i. gelée, gibier.

ke accidental sound, only in rarg, long, sang, followed by a vowel.

G, in the beginning, or middle of a word, never has its accidental sound except before e and i: in every other case, it has its proper sound, with this difference, that it sounds very hard before a, o, l, r, ua, ue, uon ; gáteau, gosier, glorieux, grandir. brigue, guenon, brigua, voguens, and less in gu, gué, gueu, gui, guoit, guoient; guttural, guérir. guerre, gueule, guider, voguoit, voguoient.

OBSERVATION. Gui is pronounced at one and the same time, though sounding the u, in aiguille and its derivatives; in aiguisement, aiguiser, and in these proper names: Aiguillon, Guise, le Guide; but the u is not sounded in these words: guider,

guidon, anguille, vivre à sa guise, &c.

G final sounds que in proper names : Agag, Doeg, Sigeleg, &c. and in joug, even before a consonant, although a little softer. It is not pronounced in doigt, un legs, le poing, vingt, hareng, étang, rang, sang, long, (these last three before a consonant) seing (signature) and fauxbourg: it sounds gue in bourgmestre.

When double, only one is pronounced, except before ge and gi, and then the first sounds gue: suggérer. It has the same sound in the middle of words before d, m, h: Magdebourg, cugmenter, Ghilan,

Berghem.

II, h. he proper sound ... hameau, heros, hibou, hogueton, hupé.

As we shall speak of this letter in the next chapter, we shall only observe here, that it has no value but when aspirated.

Let. Names.

J, j. je proper sound ... jamais, jésuite, j'irai, joli, juger.

J, at the beginning, or in the middle of a word, always preserves its proper sound; but we have already seen that g before e and i has the same sound: also before ea, eo, eu, mangea, mangeons, gageure.

OBSERVATION. Geu has two sounds; that of ju, in some words, as: gageure, mangeure, &c. and that of jeu in others, as: mangeur, gageur, &c.

Practice alone can teach this difference.

K, k. que very hard, proper sound . . . kalendes, kermes, kimi, kirielle.

This letter, which might be very useful to distinguish gue hard from gue soft, is hardly ever used.

L, l. le proper sound ... Latone, légion, livre, loge, lune.

L, at the beginning of a word, always preserves its proper sound; but, in the middle, or at the end, it sometimes has a liquid sound, which we shall mention hereafter. It is sounded in the word quelquefois; but, in conversation, the most general practice is for not sounding it in quelque, quelqu'un.

Final l is generally sounded, as: moral, mortel, Mogol, scul, puéril, &c. We are only to except baril, chenil, cul, fusil, outil, fenil, founil, coutil, soul, sourcil and gentil followed by a consonant; but before a vowel, il has the liquid sound, gentil enfant, gentil-homme; but it is mute in the plural, gentils-hommes, and also in un fils. In conversation, it is not sounded in the personal pronouns il and ils.

When double, we commonly sound but one, as in allumer, collège, collation (luncheon), &c.; but they are both sounded in allusion, allégorie, appellatif, belliqueux, collation de bénéfice, vaciller, millionaire, collusion, constellation, église gallicane, and perhaps a few others: they are also pronounced in all words beginning with il, as illustre, illuminer, &c.

M, m. me proper sound.... machine, méthode, midi, modèle, muse.

M, at the beginning of a word, always preserves its proper sound. In the middle, it sometimes assumes the nasal sound mentioned before, as in ambition, humble, and sometimes not. It is not sounded in automne, colomne, damner, and its derivatives, which it would be better to spell with nn: but it is sounded in amnistie, hymne, automnal, calomnie, somnambule, Agamemnon, indemniser, indemnité.

Final m has a nasal sound, as: Adam, faim, nom, parfum, &c.; except, 1°. Jérusalem, Ephraim, Sélim; 2°. hem! item, septemvir, and such others

which are merely Latin.

When double, we generally sound but one, as in commode, commis, &c.; except, 1°. proper names, such as Ammon, Emmanuel, &c.; 2°. the words beginning with imm, such as immortel, immobile, immoler, &c.; 3°. the words in which em is followed by m, such as emmailloter, emmancher, &c. but in this last case em assumes the nasal sound.

Let. Names.

N, n. ne proper sound ... nager, Necon, Nicaise, novice, nudité.

N, at the beginning of a word, always preserves its proper sound, as also in the middle, when before a vowel, as in *ânerie*: but, if followed by a consonant, it then assumes the masal sound, as in *ancre, engraver*, ingrédient, &c.

Final n is sounded in abdomen, amen, hymen, examen; it always has the nasal sound in the other substantives, as well as in adverbs, pronouns, and adjectives, except in those cases mentioned in the

nasal sounds.

When double, we generally sound but one, as in année, connoître, sonner, &c.; except in annexe, annal, annuel, annotation, annuler, inné, innover, and their derivatives. In the word ennemi, en has the sound of é, but in ennui, it has that of a.

P, p. pe proper sound . . . pape, pitié, posé, puce.

P, at the beginning, or in the middle of a word, always preserves its proper sound, except as we have already seen, when followed by h. It is sounded in baptismal, sceptique, scepticisme, Septembre, les septante, septenaire, septemal, septentrion, septentrional, septenaire, septemal, septentrion, septentrional, septenaire, septemal, septentrion, excepter, and their derivatives; in ademption, excepter, and their derivatives; in ademption, and contemptible: but it is always mute in baptime, baptiser, baptistaire, exempt, exempter, compter, compter, compter, comptable, comptant, compteur, comptoir; in prompt and its derivatives; in symptomatique, symptôme; in sept and its derivatives: it is sounded in impromptu.

Final p is hardly ever pronounced, as: un camp stendu, se drap est bon. We only except Alep, cap, Gap, cep, jalap, the two words trop and beaucoup before a vowel; also, in solemn speaking, the word coup, before a vowel; coup inattendu, coup extraor-

dinaire.

When double, we never pronounce but one.

Let. Names.

Q, q. que proper sound qualité, quenouille, quitter, quotidien, piqure.

Q, at the beginning, or in the middle of a word, always preserves its proper sound, but with this difference, that, in qua, quo, que, its sound is hard, like k, qualité, quotidien, quenouille, and in qué, qui, quu, it is rather softer, acquérir, quitter, piquire, or piqure.

This letter is never doubled.

Observation. Qua, qué, qui, preserve the Latin sound in the following words, where they are pronounced coua, cué, cui, viz: aquatile, aquatique, équateur, équation, quakre, quadragésime, quadragénaire, quadrangle, quadrangulaire, quadrature, quadricolor, quadriennal, quadrifolium, quadrige, quadrilatère, quadrinome, quadrupède, quadruple, quadrupler, in-quarto, quaternaire, quaternité, questeur, questure, équestre, à-quia, quindécagone, quinquagénaire, quinquagésime, quinquen-

nal, quinquennium, quintuple, équiangle, équidistant, équilatéral, équinultiple, liquation, liquéfaction.

Let. Names.

R, r. re proper sound . . . rareté, régie, rivage, Rome, ruche.

R, at the beginning, or in the middle of a word, always preserves its proper sound. In conversation, it is but little sounded in notre, votre, before a consonant, except in Notre Dame (the Holy Virgin), but it sounds in those words, when followed by a vowed or preceded by the article, votre ami, le

nôtre.

Final r is sounded in all terminations which are not in er, as: car, air, or, sur, soupir, sicur, &c., except Monsieur. In words ending in er, it is sounded in cher, fier, mer, amer, belveder, cancer, la euiller, enfer, éther, frater, garter, hier, hiver, Lucifer, magister, pater, and in proper names, Jupiter, Esther, Munster, le Niger, Statouder, &c. According to the French Academy, we ought to sound the r in altier and léger, but this is contrary to the general custom, and has been altered in the last edition of the dictionary. In all other words, the r is not sounded: ce poirié est mort, ces poiriérs ont péri; pronounce, ce poirié est mort, ces poiriés

ont péri.

OBSERVATION. Many persons, brought up in the provinces, do not sound the r in the termination ir; but it is wrong, even in conversation. As for the termination er, it ought to be sounded in solemn speaking, and especially in poetry, when followed by a vowel or h mute, and then, we ought to give it the sound of è grave common: aimer à jouer, ought to be pronounced aime rà joué, whereas, when it is mute, the termination assumes the sound of é acute: aimer la promenade, pronounce: aimé la promenade. But, in conversation, custom authorises the hiatus, and we pronounce aimer à jouer, folatrer & rire, without sounding the r, aimé à joué, folatré & rire. "To pronounce otherwise," says the Abbé d'Olivet, " betrays the pedant or the provincial."

 \mathbb{C}_{3}

When double, we pronounce but one: arroser, arriver, perruque, &c. : except, 10. in aberration, abhorrer, errer, erreur, terreur, and their derivatives. 2°. in words beginning with irr, as irriter, irréconciliable, &c. 30. in the future and conditional tenses of the verbs acquerir, mourir, courir, and their derivatives; j'acquerrai, je mourrois, &c.

S, s.

see proper sound sage, séjour, Sion, Solon, surre.

ze accidental sound ner, résumé.

S, at the beginning of a word, always preserves its proper sound: except before che, chi, where it is

mute, as in scheling, schisme, &c.

In the middle of a word, it also has its proper sound, except, 1°. between two vowels, as in raison, usage; 20. before b and d, as in presbytère, Asdrubal; 3°. in Alsace, balsamine, balsamique, and in the syllable trans, followed by a vowel: we only except these three words: transir, transissement, Transylvanie.

When followed by ce or xi, the sound of s is only heard, as in scene, science, which are pronounced sene, sience: but it is sounded in all the other combinations: seapulaire, scolarité, scrupule,

catéchisme, ostentation, &c.

Final s is sounded in as, aloes, la vis; in words merely Latin, Momus, Vénus, Fabius, droit de committimus, un agnus, &c., ; in bibus, bolus, calus, Phébus, rebus, sinus; in lis (a flower) and la Lis, (a river). It is, however, mote in fieur de lis. But it assumes its accidental sound, when, in pronunciation, it unites with a word beginning with a vowel, as: de plus en plus.

When double, we only pronounce one, but with

its proper sound.

OBSERVATION. The e preceding ss has sometimes the sound of é acute, as in pressentir, dessaler, ressusciter, &c. and sometimes that of e mute, as in dessus, dessous, ressembler, ressource, &c. but prace tice alone can teach this difference.

Lett. Names.

T, t. { te proper sound . . table, tenèbres, Tibulle, topique, tube. ce accidental sound . . . abbatial, patient, prophétie, action, Vénitien.

T, at the beginning of a word, always preserves its proper sound, even when followed by two vowels: also in the middle, whenever followed by any other vowel than i, and when followed by that vowel in sti, ati, thi: question, indigestion, mixtion, Matthias, &c.; but in ti, its sound is sometimes

proper, sometimes accidental.

It assumes the latter, 1°. in the adjectives ending in tial and tieux: abbatial, captieux. 2°. in those ending in tient, and their derivatives: patient, patience, impatienter, &c. 3°. in the words ending in atie, étie, aptie, otie and utic: primatie, ineptie, Béotie, prophétie, minutie, &c. 4°. in the verbs initier, balbutier, and their derivatives. 5°. in the names of nations, or persons ending in tien: Dioclétien, Vénitien, &c. 6°. in the nouns ending in tion, and their derivatives.

In other words, t preserves its proper sound in tie: galimatias, chatier, le tien, chrétien, &c.

Hence, we see why we pronounce

With the accidental sound. With the proper sound.

4°. Substitute chatter entier
5°. Vénitien le soutien
6°. Controlons les inventions les inventions les inventions les portions, &c.

T final is sounded in brut, apt, Christ, la dot, fat, indult, le lest d'un vaisseau, rapt, le zénith,

entre le zist & le zest.

In sept and huit, the t is sounded, when they are used by themselves: ils étoient sept; combien étiez-vous? huit: or when followed by a vowel: sept hommes, huit abricots; but never before a consonant: sept pêches, huit maisons.

In vingt, it is sounded through the whole series from twenty to thirty; vingt-un, vingt-deux, &c.; but not in the series from quatre-vingt (eighty) to a hundred, nor in six-vingt. It is also mute in vingt, when by itself, or followed by a consonant: nous étions vingt, vingt soldats. Before a vowel, it is sounded in the singular; vingt abricots; but not in the plural: -quatre-vingts abricots, say quatre-vin-zabricots.

In words ending in eet, it is not sounded, except

in correct and direct.

In all other words, it is sounded when followed by a vowel with which it unites: un savant homme, je suis tout à vous, s'il vient à partir.

When double, we pronounce but one, except in attique, atticisme, guttural, battologie, and pitto-

resque.

Let. Names.

V, v. ve proper sound ... valeur, velours, vidame, volonté.

V, at the beginning, or in the middle of a word, always preserves its proper sound: it is never double.

X,x. (cs | axe, sexe, axiome, Xénophon, Xavier. exbumer, and derivatives.

s | Auxerre, Bruxelles, six, dix (when by themselves), soixante, Aix-la-Chapelle.
c | excellent, exceller, &c.
z | deuxième, sixième, dixième, dixneuf, and derivatives.

Some persons soften the pronunciation es in proper names, and say, Sénophon.

At the end of words, x is pronounced as in Styx, phénix, index, borax, storax, larynx, onix, préfix, Pollux, Astianax, and other proper names.

In other words, x is not pronounced, before a consonant: six jours, dix livres; but, before a

yowel, it sounds as z: six amis, heureux enfant.

This letter is never double.

Y, y. Y is a vowel, when by itself, or placed between

two consonants, in words derived from the Greek: il y va, systéme, asyle. But, according to Mr. Boindin and Mr. Duclos, it is both a vowel and a consonant, as to the sound, in payer, royaume, &c. that is, an i uniting with the a, to give it the sound of é, and with the o, to form the diphthong oi; and the second stroke of the y is a weak liquid sound: pai-ier, roi-iaume. According to them, it is a consonant in yeux, paysan, abbaye, which are pronounced ieux, pèisan, abéie, and in aieux, which for a long time was spelt ayeux.

Let. Names.

Z, z. ze proper sound.. Zacharie, zéphire, zizamie, zone, Zurich.

Z preserves its proper sound at the beginning,

and in the middle of a word.

Final z sounds s in Metz, Rodez. It is not pronounced in the second persons plural of verbs, when followed by a consonant: vous aimcz, vous ririez.

We never double this letter, except perhaps in a

few Italian words, as: Abruzze.

Beside the above consonants, there are three others, for which we have no simple character, viz.

CH, ch. che proper sound .. chapeau, chérir, chicane, chose, chute.

This consonant is perhaps the most puzzling we have for foreigners; for, sometimes it preserves its proper sound, and sometimes it assumes that of q, which happens, 1° when it is followed by l, n, or r: chrétien, Arachné, Chloris. 2° in words taken from the Hebrew or Greek, when followed by a, o, u: Achab, Chanaan, Catéchumène, Nabuchodonsor, &c. 3° in several words taken from foreign languages, in which it is thus sounded before e, é, i: Michel-Ange, Machiavel, archétipe, archiépiscopal, Civita-Vecchia, Achélous, chimose, &c.; but in this last case there are so many exceptions, that we must refer the learner to practice alone; for, we pronounce soft Zachée, Joachim, archevêque, archiprètre. In conversation, Achéron is also pronounced soft.

Letters. Names.

GN, gn. gne proper sound... Champagne, règne, Avignon, ligne.

The liquid sound of this consonant takes place only in the middle of words, where it is always preserved, except in *Progné*, agnat, agnation, agnatique (law-tenns), diagnostique, cognat, impregnation, regnicole, inexpugnable, in which the g and the n are heard each separately.

ILL,ill.

i heard distinct from the liquid sound ... péril, fille, babille.

i blended with the liquid sound ... qu'il aille, émail, maille.

This liquid sound is represented sometimes by a single l, sometimes by ll, and sometimes by lh:

péril, fille, Milhau, Pardalhac.

It generally takes place in the middle, or at the end of the word; but the i and the l are distinctly heard, with each its proper sound, in Achille, imbécille, campanille, Gille, pupille, ville, tranquille, and their derivatives: in fil, Nil, file, à la file, argille, mil (a numeral), mille, Lille, and in the adjectives ending in il and ile: puéril, vil, facile, &c. except gentil, before a substantive beginning with a vowel, and gentille in the feminine.

As this liquid sound never takes place at the beginning of a word, we ought of course to except all those beginning with ill: illustre, illégal, &c.

The Abbé de Dangeau was the first who divided the consonants into soft and hard. Having observed that there are several which are easily pronounced one for another, because those letters are produced by the same organs, only used with more or less force and stress, he composed tables of consonants, according to that division, and in this he has been followed by our best grammarians. In imitation of them, we shall give the following table of soft and hard consonants, to which we shall subjoin the nasals, the liquids, and the aspirate.

TABLE.

	Soft Consonants.						\mathbf{H} ard		Consonants.
		ton							
		don							
8	of	gueu	le	•	•		8	of	gueno n cheva!
j	of	juma	15				ch	of	cheva!
c, q,	of	cuille	7,	quei	le		k	of	kalendes
		vin							
\approx	of	zèle			•		5	of	seul
Nasals.									
772	of	mon					72	of	207
Liquids.									
I	of	lent						of	rond
Strong liquid sounds.									
ill	of								règne

Soft liquid sound. Aspirated sound, with a diæresis of païen, aïeul . . . h of héros.

From the above table it appears, that the two nasals m and n, the two liquids l and r, and the aspirated letter l, are the only ones that do not change their sound from soft to hard, or from hard to soft

If we count the articulations represented by the consonants, we shall find that they form twenty-one or twenty-two simple sounds, which added to the nineteen formed by the vowels, make together forty or forty-one sounds. These sounds, which may be called primitive, are the elements of all languages: we, therefore, find them all, to a few, in all nations, even the least civilised, because they necessarily result from the organ of the voice. From these sounds are all languages derived, and to them they are all reduced, however they may differ from one another. For, this diversity does not arise from any difference in the nature of sounds, but from the difference which men have put in the combination of those sounds.

We have said, page 3, that ai has the sound of e mute in faisant, je faissis, &c. But in bienfaisant, bienfaisance, the sound of e mute takes place in conversation, and that of è open on the stage, in the pulpit, and at the bar. We have also said, page 4, that oi is pronounced o in encoignure; whereupon the Academy observes, that many persons omit the i in

this word. We have not mentioned ognon and its derivatives, because the *i* is omitted by the Academy itself, and therefore, there is no occasion to except them.

C H A P. III.

OF SYLLABLES.

The vowels and consonants mix and combine together, and from these combinations generally result the syllables. We say generally, because it sometimes happens that a single vowel forms a syllable, as in a-mi, o-deur. The nature of syllables consists in their being pronounced with a single impulse of the voice.

There are three things to be considered in syllables,

viz. accent, aspiration, and quantity.

OF THE ACCENT.

The accent expresses an impulse of the voice, either raised or depressed: for, there are in all languages certain inflexions of the voice which raise the tone, others which lower it, and others again, which first raise and then instantly lower it on the same syllable. The raised tone is called acute accent ('); the depressed tone grave accent ('); and that which is successively raised and depressed on the same syllable, circumflex accent (').

These accents were very sensible in ancient languages, and are so even in many of the modern ones: and, though they are less sensible in ours, yet they are really to be found in it; because it is a law of nature, that the passage from motion to rest should be marked, and to mark that passage, the syllable which

precedes the fall must be raised higher.

It may be established as a general principle, that there can be but one accent in the same word, however long it may be, and that this unique accent can only be placed either on the last, or the penultimate, or the antepenultimate syllable.

We do not speak here of monosyllables; for, every body agrees that they have no accent, unless we consider as such those words composed of a masculine

syllable,

syllable, followed by e mute, as: age, gite; for, in this case, the masculine syllable is evidently affected by the accent.

RULE I. Masculine polysyllables have, after the accent, either one short, or two very short syllables.

EXAMPLES.

Masculine Trisyllables. Masculine Dissyllables. 1. three long, 3d very long, ils s'entr'aimóient 1. two long, árdeur

2. second syllable very long 2. three equally short, attirer, étőient, tantót attruper 3. two short, fleuri, sommet 3. three short, 2d and 3d very

short, nation 4. long and short, misson, brú-4 one short between two long,

cóncevoir -

5. short and long, hisard, 5. one long between two short, atténter amour.

6. long, and two very short, champignon

7. two long and one very short, mensonge.

We may see by the above examples, 10. that when the accent is followed by a long syllable, this last is sensibly less long; 2° that when it affects a last syllable very long, this syllable has sensibly a double time : étoient, s'entr'aimoient have two sounds, that of è grave, and that of e mute, which merely serves to lengthen the syllable; 30, that when it is laid on a short syllable very short, this breve is sensibly less short than that which precedes its fall, &c. &c.

RULE II. Feminine polysyllables have, after the accent, either the remainder of a semi-long, or a very

short syllable, with e mute.

EXAMPLES.

Feminine Dissyllables. Feminine trisvllables. 1. the last long, entendue 1. two long, tempéte 2. one short and one long, jolie 2. the last shorter than the pe-

nultimate, insénsible 3. two short, adroite

4. one long and one short au-3. the last two equally long, dace. insipide.

In words of four, five and six syllables, as the accent can only affect one of the last three, we ought to

leave, after the syllable which has the accent, nearly the duration of one time. Now, this duration may be divided between two short syllables, conformité, sometimes filled with a syllable less short, probabilité, or with a mute, having part of the duration of the preceding syllable, insurmontable.

Such are the rules of the prosodial, or grammatical accent. It were to be wished that we had a dictionary

in which it were exactly marked.

From the above details, it is easy to understand the meaning of this axiom: "To speak French well, one must have no accent." It is, and can only be, that one must have neither the Italian, the Swiss, the Gascon, nor the Norman accent; but we ought always to have one, that of well educated persons of the capital, who mechanically place the accent on the syllable that ought to have it.

The oratorical accent occasions some change in what we have said, but those slight variations do not

fall within the notice of a grammar.

We ought not to confound the accent we have been mentioning with the accents of which we shall treat in Chapter XIII of the second part, although they have the same names and the same signs: these are mere characters of orthography, serving to distinguish the different sorts of ε and the long vowels.

OF ASPIRATION.

Aspiration is a guttural and strong impulse of the voice. It takes place before vowels in some words, and sometimes not in others, although with the same vowel and in a similar syllable. We say with aspiration le héros, and without aspiration l'héroïsme. In le héros, the letter h makes us pronounce from the throat the vowel which follows it, and then we call it h aspirate. In l'héroïsme, on the contrary, the letter h is not pronounced, and then it is called h mute. Thus, we may see that the aspiration has no other effect than to communicate to the aspirated vowel, the properties of a consonant. Hence, if the preceding word end with a vowel, this vowel makes no elision;

and if it end with a consonant, this consonant is not pronounced. Thus, although we say l'héroine, lè-zhé-roines, we say without any elision le héros, and with-

out any joining lè héros.

There would be no difficulty about the pronunciation of the words that have an h, were this letter always the character of aspiration; but it is only a mark of etymology in a number of words where it is entirely mute. "Several of our grammarians," says the Abbé d'Olivet, "wished to establish certain rules on this subject; but their pretended rules are both difficult in their application, and liable to too many exceptions." The shorter and safer way is to give an accurate list of those words in which the h is aspirated either at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end.

H is aspirated at the beginning of ha!, hablet, hache, hagard, haie, haillen, haine, hair, haire, hulage, halbran, halbrené, hôle, halener, haler, haleter, ta halle, hallebarde, hallebreda, hallecret, hallier, halte, hamac, hameau, hampe, hanap, hanche, hangar, hanneton, hanter, happelourde, happer, haquenée, haquet, harangue, haras, harasser, harceler, hardes, hardi, hareng, hargneux, haricot, karidelle, harnois, haro, harpailler, harpe, harper, harpie, harpon, hart, hasard, hase, hater, haubans, haubereau or hobereau, haubert, have, havir, havre, havresac, hausser, haut, hé! héaume, hem! hennir, héraut, hère, hérisser, hérisson, hernie, héron, héros, herse, hetre, heurter, hibou, hie, hideux, hie, hierarchie, hisser, hal hoe, hoen, hoche, hochepot, hocher, hochet, hola! Hollande, homard, Honorie, honnir, honte, hoquet, hoqueton, horde, horion, hors, hotte, houblon, houe, houille, houlette, houle, houppe, houppelande, hourdage, hourder, houret, houri, hourvari, housard, house, houseaux, houspiller, houspillon, houssaic, housse, housser, houssine, hour, hovau, huche, hucher, huer, huguenot, hulotte, humer, hune, huppe, hure, hurler, hutte, and in all the words which are derived from them and begin with h. We only except the derivatives of heros, in all of which the h is mute, viz. heroine. héroïsme, héroïque, héroïde, and héroïquement : h is also

aspirated in almost all proper names of countries or towns.

Observations. There are some words in which the pronunciation of the h is doubtful, and others which are aspirated, although they do not begin with an h. It is sufficient to know the custom without attempting to explain it.

1°. In Henri, the h is always aspirated in solemn

speaking, but never in conversation.

2°. Many persons do not aspirate the h in huguenot, but in the countries where this word is most frequently used, it is generally pronounced with aspiration.

3°. According to the present general practice, h is

not aspirated in hésiter.

4°. H is always aspirated in Hollande and Hongrie, except in the following expressions, which from the vulgar, have passed into common practice: toile d'Hollande, fromage d'Hollande, du point d'Hongrie, eau de la Reine d'Hongrie, though it is better to preserve the aspiration.

5°. Some grammarians do not think h aspirated in huit; but, whether they be right or not, we write and pronounce, without elision or connection, le huit, les huit volumes, le or la huitième, de le or la huitième, à la huitaine. According to the Academy, it is aspirated.

- 6°. We say l'onze and l'onzième, or le onze and le onzième, as if the word onze were aspirated: the last way is certainly the best, since we ought to say, without sounding the s. sur les onze heures, Louis onze. Why should we have recourse to exceptions, when we can very well do without. According to the Academy, we ought to write: de onze enfants qu'ils étoient, il en est mort dix; de vingt, il n'en est resté que onze. Therefore, we cannot say that this pronunciation is limited to dates.
- 7°. Oni, used substantively, is pronounced as if written with an h aspirated: although we say: je crois qu'oni, yet we pronounce with an aspiration: le oni et le non, un oui, tous vos ouis ne me persuadent pas. We also aspirate une in the expression: sur les une heure.

H, in the middle of a word, is aspirated only in those compound of the preceding ones, as: déharnacher, enhardir, rehausser, &c.; we only except exhausser, exhaussement, in which the h is mute. In other words not derived from the preceding ones, the h has the effect of a diæresis, and merely shows that the vowel following it, does not form a diphthong with the vowel which precedes it, as: trahir, envahir.

Final h is aspirated only in the three interjections:

ah! eh! oh!

OF QUANTITY.

Quantity is an emission of the voice either longer or shorter. In all languages there are some sounds which require more, and others less, time in pronouncing: the former produce long syllables, and the latter short syllables. There are also, in every language some variable sounds, that is, sounds which either custom has not fixed, or which become more or less long, according to their position. There are again short syllables shorter, and long syllables longer, than others: the duration of sound is measured by comparison. In the following tables, a long syllable is marked by (-), a short one by () and a doubtful one by the union of both marks (). As we have but few doubtful sounds in our language, we shall not make a separate table of them, but include them among the short ones.

TABLE I.

Long sounds.

1. A. 1st. letter of the alphabet, un petit \bar{a} , une

panse d'ā.

In the beginning of a word, in ācre, āge, āgnus, āme, āne, ānus, āpre, and their derivatives: ācreté, ānesse, āpreté, &c. Also, according to the Abbé d'Olivet, in ārrhes, ās, Short sounds.

I. In the preposition à: ă

Londres: a from avoir:
il ă: acute and very
short in the preterit and
future tenses of verbs:
il aimă, il aimeră: in
the article lă: in the
pronouns mă, tă, să,
and in the adverbs çă,
lă, déjă, oui-dă, &c.

Less acute and less short in most of the sub-

 D_3

Long sounds.

2. Abe, in these two words: 2. In syllabe, &c. Arābe, astrolābe.

3. Able, in substantives: 3. Doubtful in table, étacāble, fāble, sāble, &c. and in verbs: il m'accūble. je m'ensable, il hable.

4. Abre, without excep- 4. tion: sabre, Calabre, &c. even in the masculine termination.

5. Ac.

6. Ace, only in espace, 6. In all other words: face, grace, je lace, délace, entrelace.

7. Ache, in lache, tache 7. In all other words: (a task), gache, relache, mache, fache, and in the verbs facher, gacher, lacher, macher, relacher, tacher (to endeavour), although with the masculine termination.

8. Acle, in miracle, obsta- 8. Doubtful according to cle.

9. Acre, only in acre 9. In all other words: acre, (sour), and in sacre (a)

Short sounds. stantives borrowed from foreign languages: sopha, opéra, agenda, et cæteră. According to Mr. d'Alembert, a is long in *opéra*; but he is mistaken; it is at best doubtful. Lastly in most of ancient proper names: Cinnă, Attilă, Canadă, Spă, &c.

ble, érable, and in all adjectives: aimable, formidable, &c.

5. Without exception, tabăc, &c.

glace, préface, &c.

väche, eache, täche (a stain), and in the verbs tächer (to stain), attächer, &c.

Wail.y, in oracle, tabernacle obstacle: but is it with any foundation? (an acre), săcre (coro-

Long sounds. saker), according to Wailly.

- 10. Adre, in every word: cadre, escadre, &c. even with é acute: madré, encadré.
- 11. Ads.
- 12. Afe, affe, aphe.
- 13. Afre, affre, in affre, būfre.
- 14. Afle, in every word, even with the masculine termination: rafte, rafter.
- 15. Age, only in age.
- 16. Agne, in je gagne, and gagner.
- 17. Aque.
- 18. Ai, a vowel with two sounds, always long, when followed by a final s, as well as when ir has e mute after it: hāie, vrāie, &c.
- 19. Aigne.
- 20. Aigre, only in maigre. 20. In all other words:
- 21. Ail, followed by s, that is, in the plural,: éventāils, détāils, &c.
- 22. Aille, in the substan- 22. Only in the substantives: rocāille, &c. and in the imperative and subjunctive of verbs:

Short sounds. nation), and even in sacre (a saker), according to the Abbé d'Olivet.

10. Only in ladre.

- 11. Always short: aubăde, cascade, &c.
- 12. Always short : carafe, agräffe, épitaphe.
- 13. In all other words: balăfre.
- 15. Very short in all others: rivage, &c.
- 16. In all others: cocagne.
- 17. Always short: băgue, văque, &c.
- 18. Short with the sound of & acute: j'aimăi; but doubtful with the sound of è grave, in vrăi, &c.
- 19. Always short: tăigne, &c.
- aigre, &c.
- 21. In all words, in the singular: éventăil, détail, &cc.
 - tive, médăille, and in the indicative of verbs, il détaille, smaille, je

Long sounds. qu'il détaille, émaille,

&c.

23. Aillé, ailler, aillon, in débräiller, räiller, un bāillon, nous tāillons, un pénāillon, hāillon.

24. Aillet, aillir.

25. Aim, ain, followed by consonant; saint, crāinte, &c.

26. Aine, in haine, chaine, gaine, traine, and their derivatives.

27. Air, followed by s, 27. Doubtful in the sinthat is in the plural, les āirs, les chāirs, &c.

28. Aire, without excep- 28.

tion: précaire.

29. Ais, aix, aise, aisse, 29. without exception: épais, abaisse, mésaise,

30. Ait, aite, in il plait, 30. In all other words: naît, pait, faîte (summit) and in plurals masculine: attraits, parfāits, &c.

pale, male, rale.

32. Δm , followed by a 32... consonant, besides m, without exception:

Short sounds. travăille, je băille (I give).

23. In médăiller, médăillon, détailler, détaillons, émäillé, émäiller, émäillons, travailler, travaillons.

24. Without exception: măillet, jăillir, &c.

25. Doubtful, when not followed by a consonant: pain, faim, prochain, &c. aime, in il dime

26. Doubtful, according to some grammarians, in all other words: fontaine, &c. and we are of this opinion. Short, according to others: fontaine, &c.

gular: "air, chair, &c.

lăit, attrăit, parfăit, parfăite, parfăites, &c..

31. Al, ale, alle, in hale, 31. In all other words: royal, morale, malle, &c.

Long sounds. champ, chambre, &c.

33. Ame, amme, in ame, 33. In all other words: infame, blamme, flamme, j'enflamme, and in the preterites of the first conjugation: nous aimames, &c.

34. An, in the middle of 34. At the end of words, words: blanche, danse, &c. and followed by s, that is, in the plural: romans, courtisans, &c.

35. Ane, anne, in ane, 35. In all other words: crane, manes, manne, cabane, panne, &c. and je danne, je con-danne, which it is better to spell je damne, je condamne.

36. Ant, without excep- 36.

tion; puissant, &c.

raper, rapé. 38. Apre, in capre, apre, the only two words of this termination.

39. Aque, acque, only in 39. In all other words. Pāques, Jācques.

Césars, arts, &c.

41. Arbe, always long : 41. rhubarbe, &c.

42. Are, arre, without ex- 42. ception : avare, bizarre, larron, &c.

43. Ari, arie, only in 43. In all other words: mārri, hourvāri, equār-27.

Short sounds.

dăme, épigrămme, &c.

in the singular, without exception: roman, courtisăn, &c.

37. Ap, ape, appe, in rape, 37. In all other words: agăpes, &c.

40. Ar, art, in all plurals: 40. In the singular, César, art, and at the beginning or in the middle of words : artifice, curte, &c.

mări, Mărie, &c.

Long sounds.

44. As, ase, without ex- 44. ception: Pallas, Pégāse, &c.

45. Asque.

46. Asse, in the substantives bāsse, cāsse, clāsse, échasse, passe, nasse, tasse, savantasse, chasse (shrine), māsse (mace); in the adjectives feminine, grasse, basse, lasse; in the verbs amasse, enchāsse, cāsse, pāsse, compasse, fasse, and their compounds; lastly, in the first and second persons singular, and third person plural, ending in asse, asses, assent, in the subjunctive : que j'aimasse, tu aimāsses, qu'ils aimāssent. All these words preserve their quantity, even when, instead of the feminine, they take the masculine termination: chasser, passer, casser, &c.

47. Arte, artre.

48. At in the substantives bat, mat, appat, digat and the third person singular of the subjunctive: qu'il aimat, &c.

49. Ate, ates, in hate, pate. 49. In all other words. il gate, il mate, il dé-

Short sounds.

45. Always short: fantăsque, &c.

46. In all other substantives: chasse (chace), mässe (mass), &c. and in the first and second persons plural of the the imperfect of the subjunctive: que nous aimassions, que vous aimässiez, &c.

47. Without exception: cărte, &c.

48. In all other substantives: cambat, avocat, &c. in the adjective plat, and in the present tense of the indicative: il se bet. &c.

Long sounds. mate, and in the second person of the indicative, ending in ates: vous aimates, &c.

50. Atre, attre, always long, except, }

51. u, followed by a consonant, in the last syllable: haut, chaud, faux, and when it forms a syllable followed by the feminine termination: āuge, āutre, āune, āube, tāupe.

cording to some grammarians: entrave, grave, &c. and we are of their

opinion.

53. Avre, always long: 53. cadavre, havre, &c.

54. Ax, axe.

Short sounds.

50. In quatre, battre, and derivatives.

51. Doubtful, when it i precedes a masculine syllable: aubade, audace, and when at the end of a word: joyau, côteau; but it is short. in Pául.

52. Ave, always long, ac- 52. Doubtful, according to some others: entrave, grave, &c. short when followed by a musculine svllable: gravier, concluviste, &c.

54. Always short: Ajax, taxe, &c.

TABLE II.

E.

E is sometimes grave and long, sometimes acute and short, and often mute: in this last case, it is so short, that it is in some manner null, except in monosyllables.

No word, in our language, begins with è very open,

except être.

1. Eble, ebre.

2. Ec, ece, in the mascu- 2. In all other words: bec, line plural: Grēcs, niece, &c. échēes, &c.

1. In hieble, funebre, &c.

3. Eche, very open in bēche, 3. Little open in caleche, leche, grieche, pēche, flenmeche, creche,

Long sounds. (fishing, a peach), reweche, empeche, dépeche, preche.

éder.

5. Ec, without exception: 5. But short, when followcree, caducee.

6. Ef, followed by s, that 6. In chef, bref. is, in the plural: des chefs, sons brefs, &c.

7. Effe, in greffe.

8. Effle, in neffle.

9. E_{ge} , without exception: saerilege, collige, &c.

10. Egle.

11. Egne in regne, du- 11. In peigne, enseigne. egne.

12. Eil, eille.

33. Ein, eint, in all plu- 13. Doubtful: dessein, atrals : desseins, atteints, &c.

34. Einte, without excep- 14. tion : feinte, atteinte, &c.

15. Eitre, in reitre, the 15. only word of this termination.

16. El, in the plural: tels, solemnels, &c.

17. Ele, very open in $\approx \bar{c}le$, 17. Almost acute in all pocle, frele.

18. Em, en, in the middle 18. At the end of the of a word, and followed by a consonant: temple, exemple, tenter, &c.

Short sounds. seche, breche, il peche (he sins).

4. Ecle, ett, ette, ède, 4. Always short; siècle, respect, secte, tiede, ceder, &c.

ed by é masculine : créé.

8. In treffle.

10. Always short: regle, sĕigle, &c.

Some make règne short, but they are wrong.

12. Always short: soleil,

vermeille, &c.

teint, &c.

au-116. In sel, autel, and all others.

> the others: moděle, rébelle, &c.

> word: item, hymen, &c.

> > 19.

Long sounds.

19. Eme, almost always: 19. Doubtful in creme, bapteme, diademe, &c.

20. Ene, in chëne, cene, 20. Doubtful in proper scenc, gene, alene, frene, rene, arene, pene.

21. Ent, in the plural: 21. In the singular: memoments, lents, &c.

22. Epe, epre, always: guepe, crepe, &c.

23. Ectre, epte, eptre.

24. Eque, ecque, only in 24. In all other words: évêque and archeveque.

25. Er, open common, in 25. Less open and short, fer, enfer, mer, amer, vēr, hivēr, and in the infinitive when followed by a vowel, and the r is sounded: aimer a rire: in this case, e is open common.

26. Erbe, erce, erse, erche, 26. Without exception: ercle, erde, erdre.

27. Ert, in the plural: concerts, &c.

28. Ere, according to some : pere, sincere, chimēre, &c.

29. Erge, ergue, erle, erme, 29. Without exception :

Short sounds.

but short in je seme, it seme.

names; Diogene, Athenes, &c. but short in all other words: phénomëne, ébene, étrenne,

ment, lent, &c.

22. Only in lepre.

23. Always: spectre, iněpte, scěptre, &c.

bibliotheque, Grecque or Greque, &c.

in Lucifer, Jupiter, éther, cher, clerc, cancer, pater, magister; and in the infinitive, when followed by a consonant, and the r is not sounded: aimer la promenade: in this case e is acute.

herbe, commerce, traverse, il cherche, cercle, qu'il perde, perdre.

27. Doubtful in the singular : concert, &c.

28. Doubtful, according to others: pere, chimere, &c. but in our opinion, they are wrong.

Long sounds. · erne, erpe.

30. Err, very open, in 30. Doubtful in guërrier, - terre, guerre, tonnerre, il erre, perruque, ferrer, terrein, nous verrons.

31. Ers, without excep- 31. tion, whether the r be pronounced or not: univērs, dangērs, &c.

32. Es, open, in les (the), 32. succes, déces, and other such words; but acute in the plural of words ending in é: beautes, bontes, &c. and in the second person plural of verbs, where z is instead of s: vous aimēz.

33. Esc, in all words, with 33. But this verb becomes out exception: diocese, thēse, &c. and in il pēse.

34. Esque.

35. Esse, in abbesse, professe, confesse, presse, compresse, expresse, cesse, lesse, on s'empresse, il professe.

36. Este, estre.

37. Et, in arret, benet, foret, and all the other words which formerly)

Short sounds. asperge, exergue, perle, caverne, épiderme, serpe, &c.

terroir, terrible, atterrer, derrière, ferrière. The e is less open, short in: erreur, terreur, errant, erroné, errata, in which both rr are distinctly heard.

short, if immediately followed by its pronoun: pese-t-il?

34. Without exception:

grotesque, &c.

35. In all other words: caresse, paresse, tendresse, &c.

36. Without exception: modeste, terrestre, &c.

37. In all other words: bidet, cadet, &c. and in the conjunction et.

Long sounds. were spelt with an s mute, instead of which, we now place a circumflex accent; and likewise in all plurals: il

the other words ending in ete, from which they have suppressed the s mute.

39. Etre, in the verb ētre, 39. In all other words : salpētre, ancētres, and the other words, in which the s mute is omitted.

feux, jeux, &c.

il reve, and all the tenses of this verb.

plural.

43. Eule, in meule, ils 43. In all other words: vēulent.

44. Eune, in jeune (fast).
45. Eur, in the plural: 45. In the singular: peur,

it: c'est une fille majēure,

Short sounds.

38. Ete, in bete, fete, and 38. In all other words: prophete, pocte, houlette, vous etes: this last word, in poetry, may be made. either long or short, according to the Abbé d'Olivet.

diametre, pénetre, &c.

40. Eu, in the plural : 40. In the singular : feu, jeu, &c.

41. Eve, in treve, greve, 41. Doubtful in the other words: feve, breve, acheve, creve, &c. but short, according to some, in treve de complimens, il greve son voisin: upon this we will form no opinion.

42. Euf, euil, eul, in the 42. In the singular : neuf, fauteuil, tilleul, &c.

guĕule, &c.

flatteurs, &c.

46. Eure, when no other word is expected after cessarily to be followed by another: une heure

Long sounds. dans une houre.

47. Eux, euse, without 47. exception: heureux, heurēuse, &c.

48. Evre, without excep-48. Some make it doubtception, orfevre, lievre, &c.

49. Ex.

Short sounds. entière, la majeure par-

tie.

ful in lievre, chevre; but we prefer making it long.

49. Always short, at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of a word, when the x is pronounced cs or gz: exemple, sexe, perplex.

TABLE III.

As the number of short sounds greatly exceeds that of long ones, particularly in the three remaining vowels, we shall omit mentioning those terminations which only produce short sounds: we ought, therefore, to consider as short all those which are not pointed out as either long or doubtful.

Long sounds.

1. Idre, in cidre, hydre, in I. which the y has the same sound.

2. Ie, diphthong.

3. Ie, dissyllable, when 3. When the é is acute: the e is mute: vie, saisīe, prīe, &c.

4. Ige, in tige, oblige, afflīge; the Abbé d'Olivet makes it doubtful.

which formerly were

Short sounds.

2. Doubtful: mičl, fier, amitie, mien, Dieu, &c.

crier, prier, supplier, &c. mien, rien, &c.

In all other words: vertige, and in the tenses of verbs where the e is not mute: affliger, obliger, &c.

5. Ile, in tle, presqu'ile, 5. In style, huile, tuile: the Abbé d'Olivet makes

Long sounds. spelt with an s.

6. Im, in, before any o-6. ther syllable, besides their own: simple, pinte, &c.

and in the preterit definite: nous vimes, nous

répondimes, &c.

8. Ire, ise, always long: 8. When the e is not īre, empīre, soupīre, surprīse, ils līsent, &c. and in the preterit definite of verbs: ils virent, ils répondirent, qu'ils līsent, ils dīsent.

tense of the subjunctive: que je fisse, que tu fisses, qu'ils fissent.

10. It, in the imperfect 10. In all other words: tense of the subjunctive: qu'il fit, qu'il sen-

tīt, &c.

11. Ite, in benite, gite, 11. In all other words: vite, and the second person of verbs in the preterit: vous fites, vous

dites, &c.

12. Itre, in épître, régītre: this last is better spelt and pronounced régistre. Nevertheless, the Academy says nothing about the pronunciation of this word.

13. Ive, only in the fe-113. In all other words: enminine of the adjectives ending in if: naīve, &c.

14. Iure, only in viere 14. In all other words; li-(living).

Short sounds. it long in these words.

7. Ime, in abime, dime, 7. In all other words: maxime, &c.

> mute: soupirer, désirer, subtiliser, &c. The Ab-. bé d'Olivet makes it doubtful in verbs ending in ire.

9. Isse, in the imperfect 9. In all substantives: écrevisse, &c.

maudit, &c.

hermite, &c.

12. Doubtful in mitre, titre. &c. where some make it short; but it is so, only when the e is not mute: mitré, titré, &c,

dive, &c.

vre, vivre (to live), &c.

TABLE IV.

O.

Long sounds.

2. O in os, oser, osier, oter, I. In all other words: hote, the only words in which it is open, when it begins a word.

3. Ode, in je rode.

4. Oge, in doge.

5. Ogne, in je rogne.

emplois, &c.

7. Oic, without exception: 7.

la joie, &c.

8. Oient, in the third per- 8. son of verbs: ils avoient, ils auroient, &c.

consonant: soins, point, &c.

10. Oir.

11. Oire, without excep- 11. tion: gloire, victoire, &c.

12. Ois, without excep- 12. tion, whether forming a diphthong: fois, Danois, or pronounced with the sound of è grave : j'avois, Anglois, &c.

13. Oise, oisse, oître, oivre, 13. Observe that oisse and

Short sounds.

odeur, hotel, hotellerie.

2. Obe, open in globe, lobe. 2. Acute, in all other words.

> 3. In all other words: épode.

> 4. În all other words : lăge,

5. In all other words: besogne, &c.

6. Oi, in the plural: rois, 6. Doubtful, and not short: roi, emploi, &c.

9. Oin, when followed by 9. Doubtful: soin, toin,

devoir. 10. Doubtful: voir, &c.

without exception: oitre have the sound of framboise, paroisse, cloi- è grave in connoître, pa-

Long sounds. tre, poivre, &c.

14. Oit, in il paroit, il 14. In all other words: il grows), and its deriva- avoit, il auroit, &c. tives.

iole, enrole, il vole (he

steals).

16. Om, on, in the middle 16. When redoubled: of a word, and before a consonant, not their own: bombe, tombe, conte, monde, &c.

ception: aumone, atome, is doubled as before. phantome, &c.

18. Ons, without excep- 18. tion: nous donnons, garçons, des fonds, &c.

by s: hors, corps, bords, torts. &c.

20. Ore, orre, without ex- 20. Only when o is folception: aurore, ectorre, &c.

21. Os, ase, without ex- 21. ception: repos, dose, &c.

22. Osse, in grasse, fasse, 22. In all other words: endosse, il désosse, engrosse, and even with a masculine termination: fossé, endosser, grosseur, &c.

23. Ot, in impot, tot, dé-23. In all other words, pot, entrepot, suppot, prévot, rot (roast),

Short sounds. roître, and their derivatives.

connoît, il croît (he croit (he believes), il

15. Ole, in drole, geole, 15. In all other words: mole, role, controle, en- obole, symbole, il vola (he flies).

somme, consomme, &c.

17. Ome, one, without ex- 17. When the consonant

19. Or, ord, ort, followed 19. Not followed by s: castor, bord, effort, &c.

> lowed by a masculine termination: évaporé, except when there are two rr.

crosse, rosse, bosse, &c.

and in rot (eructation),

Long sounds. which words were formerly spelt with an s.

24. Ote, in hote, cote, mal- 24. In hotel, hotellerie, &c. . tote, j'ote, even before a masculine syllable, in these last three words: coté, maltotier, oter, : in hotesse, Pentecote.

25. Otre, in apotre, and 25. In notre, votre, followin le notre, le votre.

26. Ou, oue, in poudre, résoudre, boue, &c.

27. Ouille, in rouille and 27. When the termination its derivatives.

il foule, la foule, roule, il écroule. 29. Oure.

30. Ourre, in bourre, bourre, il fourre, courre.

31. Ouse, in épouse, qu'il 31. couse, &c.

pousse.

33. Out, in août, aoûteron, 33. le cout, le goût, le moût, and their derivatives.

34. Oute, in joute, croute, voute, il coûte, je goûte, j'ajoute.

tre.

Short sounds.

ed by a noun: ami, votre livre.

26. Ou, when followed by a masculine termination: poudré, moulu, roué.

is masculine: rouillés, &c.

28. Oule, in moule, saoule, 28. When followed by a masculine termination : moulu, foulé, &c.

29. Doubtful: bravoure,

ils courent, &c.

il 30. When the following syllable is masculine: courrier, bourrade, &c. which is an exception to the general rule.

32. Ousse, only in je 32. In all other words : secousse, &c.

absoute, 34. When the termination is masculine: ajouté, &c.

35. Outre, in coutre, pou- 35. In all other words.

TABLE V.

U.

Long sounds.

1. Uche, in buche, embuche, on débuche, &c.

2. Ue, without exception: 2. vue, cigue, &c.

3. Uge.

4. Ui, diphthong.

5. Uie, without exception: plūie, &c.

throughout the whole of this verb.

of a word: humble, emprunte, and at the end, when followed by s: parfums, importuns, &c.

8. Umes, without excep- 8. tion, in the first person plural of the preterit: nous reçūmes, &c.

9. Ure.

10. Use, without excep- 10. When the termination tion: mūse, excūse, &c. and rūsé.

que je reçusse; aumusse, according to the preShort sounds.

t. In bucher, bucheron, debucher, &c.

3. Doubtful : juge, deluge, refuge, &c.; but short when the last syllable is masculine, juger, réfugier, &c.

4. Doubtful : cuir, lui,

füir, &c.

6. Ule, in je brūle, and 6. In all other words: ferule, &c.

7. Um, un, in the middle 7. At the end, in the singular : parfum, importun, &c.

> 9. Doubtful: augure, verdure, &c. but short when the termination is masculine: augurer, &c.

is masculine: refüser, excüser, &c.

11. Usse, in the verbs: 11. Only in a few proper names; la Prusse, &c.

Long sounds. sent practice.

12. Ut, in fut (a cask), 12. In all other substanand in all verbs, in the subjunctive: qu'il fut,

qu'il reçut, &c.

13. Ute, utes, in flute, flu-13. In all other words. tée, fluteur, fluter (to drink), and in the preterit of verbs: vous recutes.

Short sounds.

tives: but, début, &c. and in all verbs, in the indicative: il fŭt, &c.

From the preceding tables, we may deduce the

following general principles.

PRINCIPLE I. All syllables, where there is an s written, but not pronounced, or which was written in the ancient orthography, but not in the modern one, are long without any exception. Hence,

10. All final symboles ending in s, x, or z, which are not pronounced, are long: accordingly, all plurals are so: le temps, les jaloux, les nez, les chassis, &c.

2°. All syllables marked with the circumflex accent, either in the middle, or at the end of a word,

are long: tempēte, fēte, dégāt, goūt, &c.

PRINCIPLE II. All vowels and diphthongs, followed by e muie, are long: pensee, cree, voie, essaie, &c.; but these vowels and diphthongs become short, if this e mute be changed into another $\dot{\epsilon}$, or another vowel: creé, prié, joyeux, essayons, &c.

OBSERVATIONS. 1°. Although it is true, in general, that diphthongs lengthen the syllables of which they make a part, yet there are some that are doubtful, as: sčin, lõin, &c. and even some that are short,

as: oĕil, fautĕuil, &c.

20. A proof that the masculine sound shortens that which precedes it, is, that almost in every instance where that preceding syllable is, by its nature, long, it becomes short, when followed by the masculine sound, save those exceptions which we have already mentioned. Thus, afflige, poudre, courre, buche, excuse, &c. change into affliger, bucher, poudrer, courrier, excuser, &c.

3°. All penultimate vowels followed by z, or s, having the sound of z, are long: trapēze, Sūze, rūse,

permise, alose, &c.

PRINCIPLE III. When nasal vowels are followed by a consonant which is not their own, that is, neither m, nor n, and which begins another syllable, they lengthen the syllable to which they belong: āmbition, dānse, tēmple, sōmbre, hāmble, &c. But when they are the very consonants of the nasal vowels, that is, m, or n, they shorten the syllable to which the first of those double consonants belongs, which then remains mute, and is no longer nasal: épigrāmme, cansōnne. We ought to except flāmme, blāmme, mānne, and perhaps a few others.

PRINCIPLE IV. Double consonants, bb, cc, dd, ff, gg, ll, pp, tt, generally shorten the preceding syllable; ăbbé, ăccuser, ăddition, ăffinité, ăggraver, ăller, ăppas, bătte, &c.; but double rr, or ss, genetally lengthen it: cārrosse, éclorre, passer, compresse, fosse, aumūsse. There are, however, some exceptions, which have been mentioned in the preceding tables.

PRINCIPLE V. In general, we ought to lay but little stress, in pronunciation, on the last syllable masculine of a word, whether long, doubtful, or short, when that word is to be pronounced in immediate conjunction with the following, and the stress ought to be greater in the contrary instance. Thus, the penultimate syllables of agréable, déluge, and the last of devoir, besoin, require but little stress, in these expressions: agréable nouvelle, le déluge universel, il a besoin de repos, le devoir des rois: but the same syllables require a greater stress when followed by a stop, as: cette maison est agréable, jusqu'au déluge, il est dans le besoin, il a fait son devoir. So true is this principle, that the change of position will shorten a syllable that was long before the change took place; for, as the Abbé d'Olivet observes, we say: un homme honnete, un homme brave; but we ought to say: un honnëte homme, un brave homme.

The observation of the rules we have given on quantity is so important, that upon it alone frequently

depends the meaning we are to apply to many words. We shall here give a

TABLE OF WORDS WHICH HAVE DIFFERENT MEANINGS, AS THEY ARE PRONOUNCED EITHER LONG OR SHORT.

Long sounds.

1. Alene, an awl.

2. Avānt, before.

3. Bāt, a pack-saddle.

4. Bāteleur, juggler.

5. Bēte, a beast.

6. Boite, a box.

7. Bond, a jump.

8. Chāir, flesh. 9. Clāir, clear.

zo. Corps, a body.

11. Cours, course,

12. Il crāint, he fears.

13. Il dégoûte, he is disgusting.

14. Dont, of which,

whose.

15. Eteint, extinguished.

16. $\begin{cases} F\overline{a}ite, \text{ summit.} \\ F\overline{e}te, \text{ feast.} \end{cases}$

17. $\begin{cases} F\overline{a}ix, \text{ a load.} \\ Tu f\overline{a}is, \text{ thou dost.} \end{cases}$

18. Nous fumes, we were. 19. Il goute, he tastes.

20. Hāle, sun-burning.

21. Hote, landlord.

22. Jais, jet.

23. Feune, a fast.

24. Lāis.

25. Legs, legacy.

26. Je laisse, I leave.

Short sounds.

I. Haleine, breath.

2. Avěnt, advent.

3. Il se băt, he is fighting.

4. Bătelier, boatman.

5. Bette, beet.

6. Il boite, he limps.

7. Bon, good.

8. Cher, dear.

9. Clerc, a clerk.

10. Cor, a French horn, a corn.

11. Cour, the court.

12. Crin, horsehair.

13. Il dégoutte, it drops.

14. Don, gift.

15. $\begin{cases} Et \ddot{a}im, \text{tin.} \\ Et \ddot{a}in, \end{cases}$

16. Făite, done, feminine of fait.

17. Il fait, he does.

18. Il fume, he smokes.

19. Goutte, a drop, the gout.

20. Hälle, market.

21. Hótte, a dosser.

22. Fet, throw.

23. Jeune, young.

24. Lăi, a layman.

25. $\left\{ egin{aligned} Laid, & ext{vgly.} \ L ilde{a}it, & ext{milk.} \end{aligned}
ight.$

26. Lesse, leading-string.

27. Lis.

Long sounds.

27. Lis, a lily.

28. Māitre, master.

29. Mātin, a mastiff.

30. Mõis, a month. 31. Mont, a hill.

32. Pāte, dough.

33. Pāume, palm of the hand.

34. Pēcher, to fish.

35. Pēne, bolt of a lock.

36. Plāine, a plain.

37. Je rogne, I cut off. 38. Rot, roast.

39. Sāint, a saint, sacred.

40. Sās, a sieve.

Scēne, scene.

Cēne, the Lord's Supper.

Sāine, sound, feminine of sain.

42. Sāut, a leap.

43. Tete, the head.

44. Tache, effort.

45. Tres, very.

46. Vāine, vain, feminine 46. Věine, a vein. of vain.

47. Ver, a worm.

48. Voix, voice.

49. Voler, to steal.

Short sounds.

27. Lit, bed.

28. Mettre, to put.

29. Mătin, the morning.

30. Mõi, İ, me. 31. Mõn, my.

32. Pătte, paw.

33. Pomme, an apple.

34. Pëcher, to commit 2

35. Pĕine, pain, &c.

36. Plčine, full, feminine of plein.

37. Rögné, scurf. 38. Röt, eructation.

39. Sein, bosom.
Ceint, girt, encircled.
Seing, signature.

40. { cã, here. Sã, her, possessive

41. Scine, the river Seine.

42. Sot. foolish.

43. Il tětte, he is sucking.

44. Tache, stain.

45. Trăit, an arrow, a dash, &c.

47. Fert, green.

48. Il võit, he sees.

49. Völer, to fly.

There are three species of pronunciation: that of common conversation, that of reading, and that of

oratory.

The quantity ought to be strongly marked in this last, either at the bar, in the pulpit, or on the stage: and it is of the greatest importance, not only to give to every syllable, either long or short, its proper distinct sound, but also to lay a greater or less stress upon those syllables, according as they are more or less long, or more or less short. Upon this depends that harmony of language, which ought to be the aim both of

the orator and of the poet.

In reading, although our pronunciation should be less marked, yet it ought to be so in a certain degree; because, as it is slowly progressive, reflection has time to perceive the faults which we might commit. only can be said to read well, who gives to each syllable its true accent, and real grammatical sound. But declamation ought to be avoided in reading; were it even a scene of a tragedy, we should recollect that we are not acting, but reading; and that the furies of Orestes are not to animate the soul of the reader. general the tone should be kept regular throughout, and be distinguished by no other inflexion than that arising from the prosodial accent. The passage from grave to acute, and from acute to grave, should be marked only by semi-tones, and perhaps even by quarters of tones. Nothing can be more shocking than to hear three or four notes of an octave in the same sentence, and yet nothing is more common, particularly in foreign countries. To read well in French, and to read well in English, are two ways altogether opposite, and this opposition is owing to the prosodial accent in both languages. But we have said enough on this subject, as it is not our intention to give here a treatise on the art of reading well.

The pronunciation of common conversation is still different from the other two; for, in this, most of the syllables seem to be short, though, with a little attention, we shall perceive that the quantity is regularly observed by those who speak well. As there is no

other rule in this pronunciation, but that of right custom, foreigners can only acquire it, either by frequently conversing with persons who have had a good education, or by the assistance of one who has been in the habit of seeing good company, and has had the means of improving his mind in it as well as his language. But, at the same time that we are to observe the quantity, we ought to avoid every kind of affectation and stiffness: this will serve to distinguish the man who has lived in the world, from the man whom his profession has confined to a sedentary life. A lady at court pronounces every syllable with exact measure, even without suspecting it; the man that seldom leaves his study, will frequently lengthen or shorten it by the very pains he takes to be exact, and whatever he says is without grace. If this attention be too much marked, it degenerates into pedantry. Every thing is pleasing and interesting in the court lady; there is too much art in the sedentary man: every thing the pedant utters is altogether outré, and even ridiculous.

ERRATUM.

Page 33. 1 17. for, it is better to spell, read: which is spelt,

PART II.

OF WORDS CONSIDERED AS SIGNS OF OUR THOUGHTS.

The number of different kinds of words is and ought to be in proportion to the wants of the mind. But what are those wants of the mind to manifest its operations? This is what grammarians are not agreed upon: and, as metaphysical discussions are foreign to a grammar like this, we shall, without any farther enquiry, distinguish nine kinds of words, because there are nine that have, or at least appear to have, different functions. These are: the substantive, the article, the adjective, the pronoun, the verb, the preposition, the adverb, the conjunction, and the interjection.

CHAP. I.

OF THE SUBSTANTIVE.

The substantive is a word which serves to name a person or a thing: it expresses the idea of a substance considered in itself, and without any regard to its qualities; as, pierre, stone; livre, book; mentagne, mountain.

There are two sorts of substantives; the substantive

common and the substantive proper.

The substantive common is that which belongs to several persons or several things of the same kind; homme, man; cheval, horse; maison, house, are common; for the name homme, man, belongs to

Peter, Paul, &c.

This substantive is more or less general, according as it is common to a greater or less number of individuals. Of these words, animal, animal; quadrupède, quadruped; chien, dog; barbet, spaniel; the first is more general than the second, the second than the third, and the third than the fourth.

The substantive proper is that which belongs to one

person, or one thing only, as: César, Cesar; la

Tamise, the Thames.

There is this difference between the substantive common and the substantive proper, that the first denotes beings by the general idea of a nature common to many, and the second by the single idea of an individual nature.

We have only those two sorts of substantives; but among the substantives common, we ought to distinguish the collectives, on account of certain laws which

are peculiar to some of them in our language.

Collectives are those which, though in the singular, present to our mind the idea of several objects of the same kind, as if united and forming a collection.

They are divided into two sorts, viz. those that express a whole collection, as: urmée, army; peuple, people; foret, forest; and those that express only a partial one, as: infinité, infinity; la plupart, the most part; the first are called general collectives, and the others, partitive.

In substantives we are to consider the gender and

the number.

§ I.

OF THE GENDER OF SUBSTANTIVES.

To the difference of the sexes must be attributed the division of the genders of substantives into masculine and feminine. The masculine belongs to men and the animals of the male kind, and the feminine to women and the animals of the female kind. In order to express the difference of sexes, we sometimes give different names to the males and the females, as: homme, man; femme, woman; cheval, horse; jument, mare. Sometimes they are distinguished by giving the names a different termination, as: lion, lion; lionne, lioness; chat, he-cat; chatte, she-cat: but the same word is frequently used to express the male and female, as: aigle, eagle; perdrix, partridge; which is an imperfection in the language. In this case, the substantive is always of the same gender, whether we speak of the male or of the female; we always say: un aigle, une perdrix.

F 3

This distinction being once established, it has, through imitation, been extended to all the substantives. The French language does not admit of the neuter gender, which is found in several others.

GENERAL PRINCIPLE. In French, every substantive, other than those belonging to men or animals,

is, exclusively, either masculine or feminine.

Several grammarians have given rules for distinguishing the gender of substantives; by the termination of their last syllable: but most of those rules are uncertain, some are liable to many exceptions, and all are of no use to beginners. Besides, the only way of acquiring a certain knowledge of the gender of nouns, is to consult a dictionary, whenever any doubt arises.

However, as it is our intention not to omit any thing that may contribute to facilitate the knowledge of the French language, we shall, at the end of this ammar, insert the table of those terminations, which may be consulted whenever there is occasion.

To the general principle which we have established,

we ought to make the following exceptions.

1°. Amour, love, masculine in the singular: un fol amour; but feminine in the plural: de folles amours.

2°. Automne, autumn, masculine or feminine: un automne pluvieux, or une automne pluvieuxe: the feminine is more generally used, particularly in prose.

3°. Conté, county, earldom, and duché, duchy, are masculine: le conté de, le duché de; but we say: une duché pairie, une comté pairie, la Franche-Camté,

Bue vicomté.

4°. Couple, couple, feminine, when it means two things of the same kind put together; uns couple d'œufs, a couple of eggs, une couple de mules, a couple of mules: but it is musculine, when it means two married people: un beau, un heureux couple, a fine, a

happy couple.

5°. Gens, people, substitute plural, is masculine when followed by an adjective: des gens keureux, happy people; but feminine, when preceded by an adjective: de bonnes gens, good people. With tout, it is masculine, it this adjective be not accompanied by another: tous les gens de bien; but when it is join-

ed to another, then gens is masculine, if this second adjective does not change its termination in the feminine: tous les honnétes gens: otherwise it is feminine, toutes les vieilles gens. In this last case, custom, displaying the whole of its despotism, as the Abbé Girard expresses it, commands that the adjective or pronoun relating to the substantive gens, be put in the masculine: les vieilles gens sont toujours hargneux; les sottes gens que voilà! ils ne sont bons à rien.

60. Délice, delight, and orgue, organ, are masculine in the singular: un pur délice, un orgue harmonieux; but they are feminine in the plural: de pures

délices, des orgues harmonieuses.

7°. Foudre, thunder, lightning, is always feminine, when taken in its proper sense: la foudre est tombée; but masculine when used figuratively: un foudre vengeur, ce foudre de guerre.

80. Personne, person, is always feminine, but per-

source, nobody, is always masculine.

§. II.

OF THE NUMBER OF SUBSTANTIVES.

THERE are two numbers: the singular, when we speak of one person, or one thing, as: an homme, a man; un livre, a book; and the plural when we speak of several persons or several things, as: les kommes, the men; les livres, the books.

Number, therefore, is the property which substantives have of denoting either one thing, or several

things.

Proper names have no plural, as: Londres, London; Milton, Milton. The names of persons, however, are put in the plural, when, under those names, we comprehend all the persons that resemble those who bore them, as: les Miltons, les Corneilles, les Fénélons seront toujours rares, the Miltons, the Corneilles, the Fénélons, will always be scarce. The Abbé de Condillac is of a contrary opinion.

There are some common names which are never used in the plural. 10. The names of metals, considered in themselves and in their original state, as: cr,

gold; platine, platen. 20. The names of virtues and vices, as: chasteté, chastity; pudeur, modesty; ivrognerie, drunkenness. 30. Some words relating to man, either in a physical or moral sense, as: l'ouie, hearing; l'odorat, smelling; sang, blood; sommeil, sleep; pauvreté, poverty. 40. The infinitive of verbs and adjectives used substantively, when custom does not allow them to be accompanied by an adjective, as: le lever, rising; le coucher, setting; le beau, the beautiful; le vrai, truth. 5°. Lastly, a few other words, which it is impossible to reduce to any particular class.

There are others on the contrary which have no singular. These are: annales, ancetres, acquets, arrivages, assises, atours, besicles, broussailles, broutilles, catacombes, ciseaux, confins, décombres, dépens, entraves, entrailles, entrefuites, épousailles, fiançailles, funérailles, fonts, frais, hardes, immondices, limites, manes, matériaux, mœurs, mouchettes, nipes, obsèques, pleurs, proches, prémices, ténèbres, vergettes, vivres.

GENERAL RULE. The plural is formed by adding s at the end of a word, as: le roi, the king, les rois, kings,; la reine, the queen, les reines, queens.

EXCEPTIONS. 10. Nouns ending in the singular, in s, x, z, do not change in the plural, as: le fils, the son, les fils, the sons; la voix, the voice, les voix, voices; le nez, the nose, les nez, noses.

2°. Nouns ending, in the singular, in au, eu, ou, take x in the plural, as: bateau, a boat, bateaux, boats; fcu, fire, fcux, fires; caillou, a stone, cailloux, stones. But trou, clou, filou, matou, licou, loup-garau, follow

the general rule.

3°. Most of the nouns ending, in the singular, in al, ail, end their plural in aux, as: nal, evil, maux, evils; travail, work, travaux, works. But hal, pal, régal, cal, local, carnaval, attirail, camail, détail, éventail, épouvantail, gouvernail, mail, poitrail, portail, sérail, follow the general rule. Bereail has no plural. Bétail, aïeul, ciel, and wil, make bestiaux, aïeux, cieux aud yeux.

OBSERVATION. In several Printing-offices of Paris, a custom has prevailed to form the plural of polysyllables ending in nt by omitting the t in the plural before s₄

Mr. Didot has not adopted this change in the fine editions that have come from his press. We are to observe that it ought never to take place in monosyllables.

There are also, in French, some compound words which follow particular rules in the formation of their

plural.

10. When a noun is compound of a substantive and an adjective, they both take the mark of the plural: un gentil-homme, a gentleman, des gentils-hommes, gentlemen.

2°. When a noun is compound of two substantives, united by a preposition, the first only takes the mark

of the plural: un arc-en-ciel, des arcs-en-ciel.

3°. When it is compound of a preposition, or verb, and the substantive, the substantive alone is put in the plural: un entre-sol, des entre-sols; un garde-fou, des garde-foux.

C H A P. II.

OF THE ARTICLE.

THE article is a little word, placed before common nouns, as if to announce them, and to show that they

are going to be used in a determinate sense.

It has been a general sentiment in France, for above half a century, that the French language has but one article, which is le. This is the opinion of the best grammarians since that time, and likewise that of the Academy.

This arricle takes both genders and numbers, and is, moreover, liable to two kinds of state, viz. to elision

and to contraction.

Le is put before a masculine substantive singular: le père, the father: this le changes into la, before a feminine substantive singular: la mère, the mother, and into les, before plural substantives of both genders: les pères, les mères. The gender of the article, therefore, is known in the plural, only by the gender of the noun which it precedes.

EXERCISE.

The sun, the moon and the stars, are the soleil m. inne f. Stoile f. pl. être glory of nature and the delight of the eyes. glore f. de art. f. et delice f. pl. de yeur.

The king, the queen, and the princes were roim.

The top of the mountains and the bottom of the sommet m. montagne f. pl. fond m.

vallies have their beauties. The rose, the violet vallée f. pl. avoin hur beauté f. pl. f. violette f. the tulip, the narcissus, the hyacinth, the gillisower, the tulipe f. narcissue m. jacinte f. girostée f. jasmine, the lily, the honeysuckle, the ranunculus, jasmin m. his m. chèvre-feuille m. renoncule f. are the ornaments of the gardens. Poetry, paintornement pl. fardin pl. art. poisie f. art. peining, music, dancing, and architecture are ture f. art. munique f. art. danse f. art. f. si ten-arts. The day and the night are equally useful. save pl. *

journ. nuit f. égulement ut.le pl.

Elision is the omitting of the e in the masculine article le, or the a in the faminine article la, when those articles precede a noun beginning with a vowel or h mute. Thus, we say: l'argent for le argent, and l'histoire for la histoire; but then, instead of the letter thus omitted, we put this little mark (') called apostrophe.

EXERCISE.

The soul of man, without cultivation, is like ame f. art. homme m. sans culture comme a rough diamond. The water of the mountains is ur biat 2 diamont 1. eau f. montagne pl. always pure. The history of Spain is sometimes toujours f. pur f. histoire f. Espagne f. quelque fois very interesting. Look at the amaranth and the très-intéressant f. Considérez amaranthe f. anemone; what beauty! Self-love and f. quelle beauté! art. amour-propre m. art. pride were always the lot of blockheads. orgenil m. ind-3 partage m. sot

Honesty, innocence, honour and love art. honnéteié f. att. f. art. honneur m. art. amour m, of virtue are very much esteemed. Summer, auart. vertuf. foit estimé pl. m. art. été m. art. antomne f. art. hiver m. variable pl. art. is separated from Italy by the Alps, and from séparé de art. Italje f. par Alpes, pl.

Spain by the Pyrences. The scholar who wishes art. Espagne f. pl. écolier m. qui déstre to improve ought to study.

* faire des progrès doit * étudier.

To join a noun to a word preceding it, we put de or à before that noun: fruit de l'arbre, fruit of the tree; utile à l'homme, useful to man. Then, instead of putting de le before a masculine singular. we put du; instead of \hat{a} le, we put au; and in plural nouns of both genders, de les, change into des, and à les into aux. We say : le roi, le palais du roi, j'obéis au roi; les rois, les palais des rois, j'obéis aux rois; les reines, les devoirs des reines, être soumis aux reines.

EXERCISE.

EXERCISE.

Silk is soft to the touch. What is agreeable to Soief. doucef. à toucher. Ce qui agréable taste is often contrary to health. He obeyed art. goût m. souvent contraire art. santé f. obéit à the orders of the king. The warbling of ordre pl. roi m. gazouillement m. art. birds, the murmuring of streams, the enamel oiseau pl. murmure m. art. ruisseau pl. émail.m. of meadows, the coolness of woods, the fragrancy art. prairie pl. fraîcheur f. art. bois pl. parfum m. of flowers, and the wariety of plants conart. fleur pl. variété f. art. plante pl. contribute a great deal to the pleasure of the mind tribuent beaucoup flaisir esprit and the health of the body. A man given up to à f. corps m. Un livré pleasure never was a great man. The happiness art. ne fut jamais un grand bonheur of a feeling man is to relieve the wants, of sensible 2 1 de subvenir à besoin pl. the poor. Shun the company of the wicked pauvre pl. Evitez compagnie f. méchant pl. and seek that of honest men. recherchez celle art. honnéte gens pl.

recherchez celle art. honnête gens pl.

De' and \hat{a} are never contracted with la; we say:

la reine, de la reine, à la reine.

Likewise, de and à are not contracted with le, before a masculine substantive singular, beginning with a vowel, or h mute; we say: de l'esprit, à l'esprit, de l'homme, à l'homme.

Neither does the contraction take place before nouns masculine of both numbers, when custom requires a word to be placed between de or à and the article. Thus we say, without any contraction: de tout le monde, à tout le monde; de tous les hommes, à tous les hommes.

EXERCISE.

The hope of success strengthened the cause espérance f. art. réussitef. fortifia cause f. virtue and weakened the audaciousness of rebellion.

art. affoiblit audace f art. f.

Fire of imagination, strength of mind and

art. feu m. art. f. art. force art. esprit

firmness of soul are gifts of nature. We fermeté f. art. ame f. (des) don pl. art. f. looked with horror upon man given up to xegardions horreur art. and voluptuousness. It is the picture of man-pr-art. volupte f. Ce tableau m. art. genre kind. The history of man in every cir-cumain m. histoire f. art. dans toutes art.

sumstance of life is the study of the wise. f. pl. art. vie f. étude f.

Observe that the English article the, which answers to the French article le, is invariable, as it takes neither gender, nor number. It is never confounded with the preposition, which affords still greater facility to the English learner of knowing the double function of those small contracted words.

GENERAL RULE. In French, the article always agrees in gender and number with the substantive to which it belongs, as: le livre que je cherche, the book which I am looking for ; la femme que je vois, the woman whom I see; les hommes qui étudient, the men that study; les sociétés que je fréquente, the societies which I frequent.

EXERCISE.

father, mother, brothers, sisters, père m. art. mère f. art. frère m. pl. art. sæur f. pl. The father, uncles, aunts and several other relations att. oncle pl. art. tante pl. plusieurs autres parent pl. were present at the ccremony of the marriage. What ind-3 m. à célébration f. mariage m. Cc que we esteem is health, frugality, liberty, estimons art. f. art. frugalité f. art. liberté f. art

vigour of mind and body; it is the love of Ligueur. pr. c'est

reverence for the Gods, zeal Dieu pl. art. attachement m. à nos art. crainte f. de friends, fidelity for all mankind, moderaami pl. art. fidélité pour tout art. monde m. art.

tion in prosperity, fortitude in adversity, f. dans att. 11 septente f. art. force f. art. adversite f. art. courage, good manners and an abhorrence * art. horreur m. art. Losne mover pl.

flattery. The apple, the pear, the peach, the art. flatterie. f. poinne f. poirc f. péche f. pineapple, the plumb, apricots, currants ananas m. prune f. art. abricot pl. art. groseille pl. strawberries, raspberries and grapes art. fraise pl. art. framboise pl. art. raisin m. are wholesome and delicious fruits; but chescuts, walnuts, hazel nuts, filberts, taigne pl. art. noise the pl. art. aveline pl. art. medlars and other fruits of this kind are hurtful to nefle pl. autres pl. cette sorte nuisible pl. health. The horror of vice and the love art.

of virtue are the delight of the wise. art. define pl. art. define pl. art. delice pl.

CHAP, III.

OF THE ADJECTIVE.

THE adjective is a word which is added to the substantive, to express the quality of a person or thing, as: bon père, good father; bonne mère, good mother; beau livre, fine book; belle image, fine intage. These words bon, bonne, beau, belle, are adjectives, as they express the qualities of père, mère, livre, image: such is the function of the adjective in every language.

We know a word to be an adjective, when it can be properly joined with the word personne, or the word chose: thus, habile, skilful, and agréable, agreeable, are adjectives, because we may say: personne habile, skilful person; chose agréable, agreeable thing.

The better to express the quality of a person or thing, the adjective takes, in French, the gender and number of the substantive to which it is joined. This difference of gender and number is generally marked by the last letter.

HOW THE FRENCH ADJECTIVES FORM THEIR FEMININE.

All adjectives, ending in the singular in e mute, are of both genders. Those that end differently form their feminine in the following manner.

GENERAL RULE. When the adjective does not end in e mute, the e mute is added to it, to form its feminine: prudent, prudente; poli, polie; sensé, sensée;

instruit, instruite.

Exceptions. 1°. Most of the adjectives in el, eil, ul, an, ien, on, as, ais, ès, et and ot, form their feminine by doubling the last consonant and taking e mute after it. Gruel, vermeil, nul, paysan, ancien, bon, gras, épais, exprès, gros, net, sot, make in the feminine cruelle, vermeille, nulle, paysanne, ancienne, bonne, grasse, épaisse, expresse, grosse, nette, sotte.

The adjectives mauvais, niais, ras, complet, discret, prêt, replet, secret, clos, dévot, follow the general rule,

Espagnol makes Espagnole.

The adjectives fou, mou, beau and nouveau, form their feminine from the old words fol, mol, bel and nouvel, which are always used before nouns, beginning with a vowel or h mute: they make folle, molle, belle and nouvelle.

2°. The adjectives blanc, franc, sec, frais, make blanche, franche, sèche, fraiche: caduc, Turc, public, Grec, make caduque, Turque, publique, Grèque or

Grecque: favori makes favorite.

3°. Bref, n.if, neuf, make brève, naive, neuve, changing the f into v: brief makes briève, but this adjective is no longer used but as a law-term: briefs délais, short delays; briève justice, quick justice. Long makes longue. We now write nu, naked, cru, raw, and vert, green, instead of nud, crud, verd; therefore, these adjectives are no longer exceptions.

4°. Malin, malignant, and benin, benign, make maligne, benigne. Fat, coxcomb, has no feminine, nor the participle past resous, resolved: absous, absolved and dissous, dissolved, make absoute, dissoute.

5°. The adjectives in eur have generally their feminine in euse: trompeur, deceiver, trompeuse; chanteur, singer, chanteuse. However, enchanteur, enchanter, makes enchanteresse; acteur, actor, actrice, actress. About these three terminations of the adjectives in eur, custom alone ought to be consulted.

These twelve adjectives, antérieur, citérieur, exté-

rieur, inférieur, mineur, majeur, postérieur, uitérieur, supérieur, intérieur, meilleur, prieur, follow the gene-

ral rule.

6°. The adjectives ending in x change this letter into se, as: jaloux, jalouse, &c. But roux, reddish, doux, sweet, faux, false, make rousse, douce, fausse. Vicux, old, makes vicille, from the old adjective vicil still used in this dogmatical expression: le vicil homme, the old man: for, every where else we say: un vicux homme, an old man, un vicux habit, an old coat. Préfix, follows the general rule. Ivrogne, drunk, and traître, traitor, make ivrognesse, traîtresse.

HOW THE PLURAL IS FORMED.

GENERAL RULE. Every adjective, of whatever termination, forms its plural by the mere addition of s either in the masculine or the feminine, as bon, bons; bonne, bonnes; poli, polis; polie, polies.

This rule is without any exception, as to the feminine termination; but the masculine has the two fol-

lowing

EXCEPTIONS. 19. The adjectives ending in s or x, do not change their termination in the plural, as: gros, big, gras, fat, hideux, hideous, &c.

2°. Those ending in au take x in the plural, and those ending in al change this termination into aux; beau, fine, nouveau, new, égal, equal, général, gene-

ral, make beaux, nouveaux, égaux, généraux.

But most of the adjectives ending in al have no plural masculine, as: austral, boréal, canonial, conjugal, fatal, filial, final, frugal, jovial, pastoral, m. al,

natal, total, nuptial, spicial and pectoral.

We have no doubt that these adjectives will soon be used in the plural, and that without any opposition, since the expressions: combats navels, commentaires littéraux, détails triviaux, have son introduced; and as no objection has been made to them, why should there be any to rits nuptiaux, devoirs canoniaux, faits spéciaux, combats pastoraux?

G2

DEGREES OF SIGNIFICATION IN THE ADJECTIVE.

Adjectives have three degrees of signification, viz. the positive, the comparative and the superlative.

The positive is the adjective itself, without any

increase or diminution, as: Ecau, belle, fine.

EXERCISE.

A child gentle, amiable and docile is beloved by enfant deux, airnable aimé de every body. An ingenious candour, an amiable simpliingénu 2. candeur f. 1.

city and a lively engaging artlessness, are all the piquant 2. naiveté f.

charm of youth.

sharme m. art. jeunesse f.

The comparative is the adjective, with comparison of one degree to another. When two things are compared, the one is either superior, or inferior, or equal to the other: hence three sorts of comparisons.

The comparative of superiority is formed by putting plus, more, before the adjective, as: la rose est plus belle que la violette, the rose is more beautiful

than the violet.

The comparative of inferiority is formed, by putting moins, less, or ne si, not so, before the adjective, as: la violette est moins belle que la rose, the violet is less beautiful than the rose; or, la violette n'est pas si belle que la rose, the violet is not so beautiful as the rose.

The comparative of equality is formed by putting aussi, as much, before the adjective, and autant before the participle, as: la tulipe est aussi belle que la rose, the tulip is as beautiful as the rose; Louis XII fut autant aimé que Louis XI avoit été hai, Louis XII was as much beloved as Louis XI had been hated.

Si and tant also mark the comparison, and we shall see how they are to be used. The word que,

than, serves to join the two objects compared.

These three adjectives, meilleur, better, moindre, less, pire, worse, express by themselves a comparison. Meilleur is the comparative of bon, good, and is instead of plus bon, which is not used, although we say: aussi bon and moins bon. Moindre is the comparative of petit, little, and is instead of plus petit, which is

also used. Pire is the comparative of mauvais, bad, and is instead of plus mauvais, which is also used.

EXERCISE.

The Republic of Athens has been more illustrious République f. Athènes than that of Lacedemon. Homer had percelle Lacedemone. Homer had perhaps more genius than Virgil; but Virgil had inconfitted plus de génie Virgile mais incontestably more taste than Homer. Milton appears to paroit 2. * testablement me to be more sublime than all the other epic autre 1. épique 3. poets. Tasso has an imagination less lively, but better prite pl. 2. Le Tasse f. vif. f. plus regulated than Ariosto: but Ariosto has more fire, reglé f. l'Arioste de more imagery, in a word more poetical genius de image pl. en mot de 2. 1. than Tasso. Shipwreck and death are less art. naufrage m. art. mort f. fatal than pleasures which attack virtue, m.pl. art. pl. qui attaquent art. Gross vice and brutish impudence, are not art. grossier 2. 1. brutal 1. 2. ne pas sometimes so dangerous as a modest beauty. The quelquefois dangerent to the eye than the violette f. des glittering to the eye than the violette f. etaleter ind-1. art. modestie pride. Autumn is not so varied as spring, poets. Tasso has an imagination less lively, but better pride. Autumn is not so varied as spring,
pr-art. orgueil. art. Automne varié f. art. printemps
but it is richer. Pope's images are as perfect
elle riche. de Pope 2. art. pl. l. parfait f. pl.
as his style is harmonious. Delicaey of taste
son harmonieux. art. Délicatesse f. art. m. is a gift of nature as scarce as true genius. ton art. rare art. vrai

The colours of life in youth and couleur pl. art. dans art. pr-art. age appear as different as the face of avancé avoir une apparence f.

art. pr-art.
The adjective is in the superlative, when it expresses the quality in a very high, or in the highest degree; hence, we have two sorts of superlatives, the one absolute, and the other relative.

G 3

The superlative absolute is formed by putting très, fort, bien, very, extrêmement, extremely, &c. before the adjective, as: Londres est une très-belle ville, London is a very fine city; Paris est extrêmement peuplé, Paris is exceedingly populous. We call it absolute, because it does not express any relation to another

thing.

The superlative relative is formed by putting the article le either in its natural, or contracted state, before the comparative adverbs, meilleur, moindre, pire, plus and moins, as: Londres est la plus belle des villes, London is the finest of cities; je préfère une maison de campagne au plus beau des palais, I prefer a country house to the finest palace. We call it relative, because it expresses a relation to another thing.

The superlative relative is always followed by de.

OBSERVATION. There is this material difference between the comparative and the superlative relative, that the first expresses only a particular comparison, and the second an universal one.

EXERCISE.

That landscape is much varied, very far extended, and Ce paysage varié * étendu Ce paysage infinitely agreeable on every side. The style of Fénélon de tout côté pl. infiniment is very rich and very agreeable, but it is sometimes prolix; i!that of Bossuet is extremely lofty, but sometimes harsh extremement éleve and rough. Fénélon, in painting nature, would wish en peignant art. vouloir con-1. rude all its beauties; but Bossuet never to express le f. pl. * en rendre ne jamais The most beautiful it but in a mass. peint 2. la 1. que en * masse pl. tĥat is perhaps in any comparison comparation f. que y aveir subj. 1. feut-cire auum language, is that which Pope has drawn from the langue f. celle que tiré f. de Alps, in his Essay on Criticism. The picture tableau m. dans son Essai sur art. critique. death, in Racine's Phedra, of Hippolitus' 2. art. Phèdre f. 1. Hippolite 2. de art. 1. is, in the opinion of many persons of taste, the jugement m. bien des personne pl.

of descriptive and imitative poetry among finest piece f. 1. parmi morceau m. the moderns.

moderne. pl.

AGREEMENT OF THE ADJECTIVE WITH THE SUBSTANTIVE.

RULE I: The adjective always agrees in gender and number with the substantive to which it relates.

Examples:

Le bon père, The good father. La bonne mère, The good mother.

De beaux jardins, Fine gardens. De belles promenades, Fine walks.

Bon is in the masculine singular, because père is masculine and in the singular; bonne is in the feminine singular, because mère is feminine and in the singular; beaux is in the masculine plural, because

jardins is masculine and in the plural, &c.

EXCEPTIONS. The adjectives nu, bare, and demi, half, placed before the substantives, and feu, late, placed before the article, or a possessive pronoun, ought to be excepted from this rule. We say: nupieds, bare-footed, nu-tête, bare-headed, feu la reine, the late queen, feu sa mère, his late mother, demi heure, half an hour; but we ought to say: les pieds nus, la tête nue, la feue reine, sa feue mère, une heure et demie, an hour and a half. We also say: supposé la vérité du fait, supposing the fact to be true; excepté quelques personnes, except a few persons; although we ought to say : la vérité du fait supposée, quelques personnes exceptées.

RULE II. When the adjective relates to two substantives singular, it ought to be put in the plural.

Example:

Le roi et le berger sont égaux après la mort, The king and the shepherd are equal after death.

RULE III. When the two substantives to which the adjective relates are of different genders, this adjective is to be put in the masculine. Example:

Mon père et ma mère sont contens,

My father and mother are contented.

OBSERVATION. These three rules do not obtain in English, as the adjective is always the same, both for the masculine and feminine, for the singular and plural.

EXERCISE.

Hills covered with trees, loaded with fruit des côteau pl. convert de arbre pl. chargé pl. already rife, and spread over with odoriferous plants;
déjà mur * odoriférant plante f. pl. a pure water which rolls its limit chrystal in the 2. 1. qui roule son 2. 1. à midst of meadows enamelled with flowers; a gloomy milieum. pl. émaillé sonless carries into sing. dont art. 2. fraicheur f. 1. porter dans the senses an enchanting calmness; every thing sens pl. enchanteur 2. calme m. 1. tout interests the heart, every thing attaches it in attacher 2 le 1. dans intéresser that abode full of allurements. Fly, inconsiderate ce sépour plein attrait pl. Fuyez, icnonsidéré 2 youth, fly from the enchanting allurements of a vain1. * 2. pl. 1. 2.

world: its perfidious sweets are a slow poison, which.
1. ses perfide douceur pl. lent 2. 1. qui
would destroy in your soul the noble enthusiasm con. 1. détruire votre enthousiasme of good, and the precious seeds of sublime virrt. tien précieux germe m. art. pl. art. s. Uprightness and piety are very much pl. art. f. art. tien esteemed, even by the wicked. A man in the most estimé f. pl. même de mechant. art. and a man in the most abject elevated, élevé 2. état m. 1. art. situation, are equally precious in the eyes of God. à pl. Pilpay and Confucius are very illustrious among the nations of Asia. His probity and disinterestedness peuple pl. art. Sa son désintéressement peuple pl. art. The love of life, and the fear of are known. art. connu to man. Ignorance and death, are natural

GOVERNMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

art. art.

natur ϵl

self-love are equally presumptuous.

egalement presumptuoux

There are adjectives which are always used without any government, because they have a determinate signification, as: courageux, courageous; sage, wise. Others have no signification but when followed by another word, as : pret a, ready to; capable de, ca-

pable of. Lastly, there are some which may or may not be followed by another word, according as we wish either to give them a determinate sense in regard to some particular thing, or leave them the general sense they have of themselves, as: content, sensible: for, we may say with equal propriety: je suis content, I am satisfied; il est sensible, he is sensible; and je suis content de vous, I am satisfied with you; il est sensible an froid, he is sensible of cold.

Rule. To join a noun to an adjective that precedes it, we put de or à between that adjective and the noun: then, that noun is called the government of

the adjective.

EXAMPLES.

Digne de récompense,
Worthy of reward.
Content de son sort,
Satisfied with his lot.

Digne de récompense,
Useful to man.
Propre à la guerre,
Fit for war.

Récompense is the government of the adjective digne, because it is joined to that adjective by the word de: l'homme is the government of the adjective utile, because it is joined to that adjective by the word à. EXERCISE. Virtuous men are always worthy of esteem. A fine landart. 2. 1. digne
scape is always pleasing to the eye. Alcibiades, enraged
agréable vue f. enragé agréable vue f. enragé
at being proscribed, resolved to ruin his country. A
de être proscrit résolut de perdre sa patrie
weak mind is liable to many contradictions. A heart foible 2. 1. sujet bien des fice from cares enjoys the greatest possible felicity.

libre de soin pl. jouit de 1 3. 2 tibre de soin pl. jouit de 1 3. 2
The wise Socrates did not shew himself affected by the se montrer ind-3. sensible à hatred of his enemies and the injustice of the Athehaine f. ses pl. pr.
nians. Voltaire has been with reason accused of avarice a nien pl. avec accusé
he was always greedy of praise and insatiable of glory. avide louange pl. Rousseau, endowed with a strong and fiery imagi-doué de fort2. bouillant3.
nation was all his life-time subject to frequent fits of

sa f. * enclin à de

and liable to all the variations misanthropy, misantropie qui en upon it. sont la suite.

NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES OF NUMBER.

Adjectives of number are those that are used in computation, and they are divided into two sorts, viz. cardinal and ordinal: the cardinal number serves to express the quantity of things, and the ordinal to denote the rank which they hold between them.

The cardinal numbers are:

Un Dix-huit Eighteen! Two Deux Dix-neuf Nineteen Trois Three Vingt Twenty Quatre Four Vingt & un, or) Twenty-one Cinq Five Vingt-un Six Twenty-two, &c. Six Vingt-deux Sept Seven Trente, &c. Thirty, &c. Huit Eight Quarante &c. Forty, &c. Fifty, &c. Neuf Nine Cinquante, &c. DixTen Soixante, &c. Sixty, &c. Eleven Onze Soixante-dix, &c. Seventy, &c. Twelve Douze Quatre-vingts, &c. Eighty, &c. Treize Thirteen Quatre-vingts-dix Ninety, &c. Quatorze Fourteen Hundred Two hundred, &c. Fifteen Deux cents, &c. Quinze Seize Sixteen Mille Thousand Dix-sept Seventeen Deux mille, &c. Two thousand, &c. being together twenty-three adjectives of cardinal numbers.

The adjectives of the ordinal number are: Premier First Quatrième Second Second Cinquième Third Sixième, &c. Troisième Sixth &c.

and so on through the cardinal numbers.

All the ordinal numbers are formed from the cardinal, by changing in vième those that end in f, as, neuf, neuvième,; by changing into ième the e mute in those which have this termination, as : quatre, quatrième; and by adding ième to those ending with a consonant, except cinq, which, besides, requires u before ième, as : trois, troisième ; cinq, cinquième.

There are three sorts of substantives of number,

viz. collective, distributive and proportional.

The collective serve to denote a certain quantity of things, as: une demi-douzaine, half a dozen; une

Jouzaine, a dozen; un millier, a thousand; un million, a million; un milliard, a thousand millions, &c.

The distributive are those which serve to express the different parts of a whole, as: la moitié, a half; le quart, a quarter; un cinquième, a fifth part, &c.

The proportional serve to denote the progressive increase of things, as: le double, double; le triple, treble; le centuple, a hundred-fold, &c.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE PRONOUN.

The pronoun is a word which supplies the place of the noun; a substitute performing its functions: it conveys no precise idea of itself, but it presents to the mind one that has been expressed before, or is known from circumstances.

Grammarians do not agree upon the manner of classing the pronouns, nor upon the number of classes into which they are to be divided. We do not mean to enter into the merits of any particular system, but only, for clearness' sake, divide the pronouns into personal, possessive, relative, absolute, demonstrative, and indefinite.

& I.

OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Personal pronouns are those which denote the persons.

There are three persons: the first is that who speaks, the second is that to whom one speaks, and

the third is that of whom one speaks.

The pronouns of the first person are: je, I, me, moi, me, for the singular, and nous, we, us, for the plural. They are of both genders, that is, masculine, if it be a man that speaks, and teminine, if it be a woman, as. je me promène, I walk; regardez-moi, look at me; parlez de moi, speak of me; nous nous promenons, we are walking.

Observe, that me is instead of à moi, moi, as: il me dit, that is, il dit à moi, he tells me; il me re-

garde, that is, il regarde moi, he looks at me.

The pronouns of the second person are: iu, thou,

te, toi, thee, for the singular, and vous, you, for the plural. They are of both genders; that is, masculine, if it be a man to whom one speaks, and femimine, if it be a woman, as: tu te promènes, thou walkest; regarde-toi, look at thee; on parle de toi, one speaks of thee; vous vous promenez, you walk.

OBSERVE, that te is instead of à toi, toi, as: on te dit, that is, on dit à toi, one tells thee; on te regarde.

that is, on regarde toi, one looks at thee.

Through politeness, we say vous, you, instead of tu, thou, in the singular, as: vous êtes bien bon & bien honnête, you are very good and very polite.

The pronouns, either of the first or the second

person, are applied only to persons or personified

things.

EXERCISE.

OBSERVATION. Through the whole of this exercise, it will be sufficient to tell the learner that je, me, tu, te, are put before the verb; moi, toi, after, and nous, vous, generally before, but sometimes after the verb: the reason of it he will see afterwards. The examples mentioned are sufficient to show him that construction. Some of them are placed after the verb, only when the sentence is interrogative, or when the verb is in the imperative, or when they are preceded by the preposition de.

cast my eyes upon the objects that surrounded porter ind.-3. ma vue sur pl. qui environner r pl. qui environner with pleasure, that all was me, and saw ind.-2. me je voir ind.-3. calm and tranquil. I was telling thee that dancing dire ind .- 2. te art. danse is to the body what taste is to the mind. Look Regardez imp. cc que art. at me: dost thou not see in all my features that I am

moi vois mestraits pl. que

satisfied with thee. What wast thou saying of me?

satisfait de toi * dire ind.-2. moi? satisfait de toi deceived through too much We are often souvent se tromper par trop * de cipitation. You have said the most flattering things dire ind.-4. flatteur 2. f. pl. 1. We have told you the truth. You have 20 25. » псиз. dire ind-4. shewn

us great talents: when will you show ind-7. montrer inf .- 3. de us great virtues. My dear child, go on, and you Mon continuer imp.

will be beloved and esteemed by every body. How amiable de aimé

you are! How good you are to have thought 1. 2. de vous ître occupé 3. of useful things in our youth. us! Let us think

2. s'occuper imp. Ansuse yourselves; but let not your amusements take

s'amuser imp. 205

from you the love of employment. It was gout art. travail m. On ind .- 2. ôter imp. said of you the other day, that you intended

autre que se proposer ind.-2. de spend some winters in London, (in order) to see every thing à Londres pour tout ce passer un curious that that city affords.

5. que 1. cette 2. 3. offrir de 4.

The pronouns of the third person are, il, he, elle, she, lui, le, him, it, la, her, it, for the singular, and ils, or eux, elles, leur, les, they, them, for the plural. Il, le, ils and eux, are always masculine; elle, la and elles, always feminine; lui, leur and les, masculine or feminine, according to the gender of the persons spoken of.

OBSERVE, that lui is instead of à lui, à elle, as: je lui parle, may signify, je parle à lui, I speak to him, and je parle à elle, I speak to her. Le is for lui, and la for elle, as : je le vois, je la vois, that is, je vois lui, I see him, je vois elle, I see her. Leur is for à eux, à elles, and les for eux, elles, as : je leur parle may signify, je parle à eux, I speak to them (men), je parle à elles, I speak to them (women), je les vois, that is, je vois eux, I see them (men), je vois elles, I see them (women).

There is still another pronoun of the third person: soi, se, one's self: it is of both genders and of both numbers, and is called reflected, because it expresses

the relation of a person to himself.

OBSERVE, that se is for à soi, soi, as : il se donne des louanges, that is, il donne des louanges à soi, he gives himself praise: il se flatte, that is, il flatte soi, he flatters himself.

There are also two words which are used as pro-

nouns, viz.

1°. En, which is put instead of de lui, d'elle, d'eux, d'elles: thus, when we say, j'en parle, we mean to say, je parle de lui, d'elle, &c. I speak of him, of her, &c. according to the person or thing whose name has been mentioned before.

2°. Y, which means à cette chose, to that thing, à ces choses, to those things; as, when we say: je m'y applique, that is, je m'applique à cette chose, à ces choses, I apply myself to that thing, to those things.

EXERCISE.

Observation. Il and ils, and the other personal pronouns, are always to be placed before the verb, except in the cases mentioned in the preceding observation.

I was saying to him: do not you know " dire ind .- 2. " lui savoir ind-1. the property of merit is to excite envy? He propre m. art. de exciter art. often exhorted me to the study the most useful, that exhorter ind .- 2. of the human heart. They make us love humain 2. 1. faire ind.-1. art. tue, more by their examples than by their words. par less exemple pl. paro What has been said of them? Do not you parole pl. Que dire ind.-4. eux * see them? With what pleasure they play! ·voir les que1 jauer flattered himself of having your protection. In se flatter ind.-2. avoir inf.-1. voire a thousand instances, we do not watch sufficiently mille occasion pl. on * veiller ussex over ourselves. They make themselves too busy about it.

sar si-mime On 1. soccuper 3. * trop 4. en 2.

They speak a great deal of it. See them; I t dem of . imp imp. les 1. On 1. parter 3. consent to it, but do not trust se fier imp-2. y consents 3. y 2.

Of the above pronouns, some relate to persons, others to things, and others again, with equal propriety, to both persons and things.

Il, ils, le, la, les, are said equally of persons and things, but elle, elles, eux, lui, leur, cannot be said of things, except in the cases which we shall mention

in Chap. X.

Se may be said of persons and of things, as: cette femme se promène, that woman is walking; cette fleur se flétrit, that flower withers. Soi is also said of both in the singular, as: on pense trop à soi, one thinks too much of one's self; cette chose est bonne de soi, that thing is good of itself. As for the plural, we shall speak of it in Chap. X.

En is said of both persons and things; in this sentence: j'en parle avec connoissance de cause, I speak of it from a certain knowledge of the matter, en may be understood, according to circumstances, of one

person, or thing, of many persons, or things.

Y is generally understood of things only, as: fureze les procès; souvent la conscience s'y intéresse, la santé s'y ruine, & les biens s'y dissipent, avoid entering into law-suits; in them, conscience is often interested, health ruined, and fortune wasted; y is for dans les procès. Some grammarians observe that in certain cases y may relate to persons; but those cases are so rare, that it is not worth while to make an exception to the rule already laid down.

RULE. The pronouns of the third person ought to convey the same idea as the nouns of which they supply the place, and be in the same number and the

saine gender.

Thus, in speaking of the rose, say: elle a un parfum exquis; aussi est-elle la fleur la plus recherchée, it has an exquisite perfume, and therefore it is the most sought after of all the flowers; because the pronountelle relates to rose, which is feminine and in the singular; and in speaking of several ladies replete with amiable qualities, say: elles ont autant de modestie que de beauté, d'esprit & de grâce, they have as much modesty as they have beauty, wit and graces; because the pronoun elles relates to dames, which is feminine and in the plural.

H 2

OBSERVATION. The pronoun moi, toi, soi, nous, was, eux, lui, elle, elles, sometimes denote the relation of a person to himself. In this case, in order to give a greater degree of energy to the language, we add meme, self, to those pronouns, as: il faut de temps en temps rentrer en soi, pour se rendre compte à soi-meme, we ought, now and then, to examine into our minds, that we may reckon with ourselves.

EXERCISE.

at that magnificent building; it unites Regarder imp. ce superbe il réunit art. gracetulness to beauty and elegance to simplicity. grace art. every thing to himself: he rose devoir ind .- 3. il s'élever in-3. by his own merit to the first dignities of the son propre art. premier f. pl. Ignorance is jealous, presumptuous and vain: it sees difficulties to nothing, is surprised at nothing, ne voit rien ne s'étonner de and stops at nothing. Let us gather these roses: ne s'arrêter Cueillir imp. ces heavens! what a sweet perfume they exhale! Europe ciel quel * doux exhalcr stretches out her arms to her companions: she calls tendre ses compagne pl. them: in vain they try to reach her. Imitate compagne pl. appeller en vain s'efforcer Imiter imp. art. nature in your writings: never lose sight of pe dre de vue * imp. 2005 your boldest flights. Never judge from ros grand hardiesse f. pl. juger imp. sur art.
pearances; they are often deceitful: the wise man
trompeur f. pl. sage examines them and does not decide upon them, till * se décider d'après 942 he has had time to fix his judgment. lorsque de art. 5022

§. 11.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

The possessive pronouns are those which denote the possession or property of a thing. When we say: mon habit, my coat; wotre maison, your house;

it is the same thing as saying: *l'habit de moi, la maison de vous*. They might with much more propriety, be denominated adjectives pronominal possessive.

There are two sorts of possessive pronouns, viz. those that are always, and those that are never joined

to a noun.

Among those that are always joined to a noun, some relate to one person, and others to several per-

sons.

Those that relate only to one person are, for the first, mon, ma, in the singular, and mcs, in the plural, my: for the second, ton, ta, in the singular, and tes, in the plural, thy; and for the third, son, sa, in the

singular, and ses, in the plural, his or her.

Those that relate to several persons are, for the first, notre in the singular, and nos in the plural, our: for the second, votre in the singular, and vos in the plural, your: for the third, leur in the singular, and leurs in the plural, their.

Mon, ton, son, are masculine; ma, ta, sa, femi-

nine; and all the rest are of both genders.

Observation. We have already seen that politeness required that we should say vons, instead of tu, although we speak but to one person. We ought, in that case, to make use of the corresponding pronoun votre, and not ton, as: vous étes trop appliqué dans votre travail, & trop dissipé dans vos amusemens; you have too much application in your work, and too much dissipation in your amusements.

Rule. These adjective pronouns always agree in gender and number with the nouns to which they are

joined.

EXAMPLE.

Mon père, ma mère. & mes frères, sont à la campagne avec vos amis & leurs enfans.

My father, mother, and brothers, are in the country

with your friends and their children.

EXCEPTION. Mon, ton, son, are used in the feminine, before a noun feminine beginning with a vowel or h mute; we say: ton tone, thy soul, ton human, thy humour, instead of to ane, it interest.

EXERCISE.

OBSERVATION. In English, these adjectives agree with the noun possessing; but, in French, they are of the same gender and number as the substantive to which they are prefixed.

My principles, my love of retirement, my taste principe pl. goûl pour art. amour for every thing that is connected with instruction, tout ce qui tenir ind-1. à art. and my detestation of all intrigue and all spirit of party, haine pour esprit every thing has induced me to prefer a life passed porter ind-4. * art * in the closet to the active life of the world. Do not think, de * cabinet 2. 1. croire imp.

taste so delicate and so nice, and even thy graces can

fin m.me 2. 1. pouvoir sub.1.
thee from censure. His wit, his talents,

my daughter, that thy candour, thy ingenuity, thy

mettre à l'abri art.

his honesty, and even his over-good nature make him be
2. Lonhomie 1. faire ailoved and sought after by every body. Our constancy
mer inf-1. rechercher de

and our efforts will at last surmount all obsta-

cles. I do not see any thing that can be reprehensirien que on subj-1. refrendre

ble in your conduct and in your connections. Their taste leaison, pl.

for the fantastical, the monstrons and the marvellous, gives

bizarre

to all their compositions, although very fine in themselves,

quoieue

f. elles-memes

an air of deformity, which is shocking at first sight.

The pronouns which are never joined to nouns

also relate to one person, or to several persons.

Those which relate only to one person are, for the first, le mien, masculine, la mienne, feminine, in the singular, and les miens, masculine, les miennes, feminine, in the plural, mine: for the second, le tien, masculine, la tienne, feminine, in the singular, and les tiens, masculine, les tiennes, feminine, in the plural, thine: for the third, le sien, masculine, la sienne,

feminine, in the singular, and les siens, masculine, les siennes, feminine, in the plural, his or hers.

Those which relate to several persons are, for the first, le or la nôtre, according to the gender, in the singular, and les nôtres, for both genders in the plural, ours; for the second, le or la vôtre, according to the gender, in the singular, and les vôtres, for both genders, in the plural, yours: for the third, le or la leur, according to the gender, in the singular, and les leurs, for both genders, in the plural, theirs.

RULE. These pronouns are never used but when the nouns to which they relate, have been expressed

before.

We say: avez-vous toigours votre cheval? je n'air plus le mien. Have you still your horse? I have no longer mine. But we cannot begin writing a letter in these words: j'ai reçu la vôtre, I have received yours, because the word lettre has not yet been expressed.

EXERCISE. Is it your humour, or hers, that hinders you from living ce humeur f. qui empécher de inf.-1. well together: If it be yours, it is easy for you to remedy ensemble si ce ind-1. il de porter reit, by taking a little more upon yourself; if mède y or prendre inf .- 2. it be hers, redouble your complaisance, attention, redoubler de imp. * good proceedings; it is but seldom that this way freedde proves unsuccessful. If my friends had served ne reussir subj.-1. servir ind .- 6. me as well as yours, it is most certain that I should have succeeded; but yours have been all fire, and mine all ice. All the pictures which we expected from Rome are talleau pl. ied.-2. $d\varepsilon$ arrived; there are some that are a little damaged;
il y a cn qui endommager inf.-3. but mine, his, and yours, are in good condition. We know

perfectly what are your amusements in town, and I assure

quel vos à art.

you we are very far from envying them to you a envier inf.-1.

but, if you knew owns in the country, it is most likely ind.-2. ily a toute appa-

you would not be long in giving the rence que tander cond.-1. à inf.-1.
preference to them. You have opened your heart to ouvrir ind.-4.

me with that noble frankness which so well becomes an eette franchise qui 2. sied 1. à

honest man: this confidence well deserves mine.

f. 2. mériter 1.

S. III.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

The relative pronouns are those which relate to a noun preceding them. When we say: Phomme quijoue, the man who plays, qui relates to the substantive homme. The word to which qui relates is called antecedent. In the above example, Phomme is the antecedent of the relative qui.

Some grammations give to these pronouns the deromination of *conjunctive*, because heing the only ones that do the office of a conjunction, they are the

only ones that can be so denominated,

There are six relative pronouns, viz. qui, who or which, que, whom or which, lequel, which, dont, whose or of which, quoi, what, and on, where, whither, &c.

Qui and que are of both genders and numbers.

Rule. The relative pronouns qui and que always agree with their antecedents in gender, number and person.

EXAMPLES.

Moi qui suis, son Sis, I who am his son.
Tor que es s. name,
Than who art so young,
L'enfant que jouc,
The child who plays.

News qui étudions,
We who study.
Vous qui viez,
You who daugh.
Les livres qui instruisent,
The books which instruêt.

In the first example, qui is in the singular, and of the first person, because the pronoun moi is in the singular and of the first person. In the second, it is in the singular and the second person, for a similar reason, and, moreover, it is masculine, if it be a boy that is spoken to, and feminine if it be a girl, &cc. &c. It is the same with que: l'enfant que je demande, the child whom I ask; la promenade que j'aime, the walk which I like; les hommes que j'estime, the

men whom I esteem, &c.

Lequel is of both genders, and of both numbers, according to circumstances: les places auxquelles il aspire, the places to which he aspires; les revenus sur lesquels vous comptez, the incomes upon which you depend.

OBSERVATION. The article le is so far united with the word quel, that they form together but one and the same word, either in its natural or in its contracted state; we say: lequel, laquelle, lesquels, lesquelles,

duquel, de laquelle, &c. auquel, à laquelle, &c. Dont is for de qui, or duquel: l'homme dont (de qui) veus parlez, the man of whom you speak: la

Tamise dont (de laquelle) le lit . . . the Thames, the channel of which ... It is of both genders, and both numbers.

Quai is for lequel preceded by a preposition: la chose à quoi (à laquelle) on pense le moins, the thing

of which we think the least.

Où, d'où, par où, are of both genders, and both numbers, according to circumstances: voilà le but où il tend, that is the end he aims at: c'est une chose d'où dépend le bonheur public, it is a thing upon which public happiness depends: les lieux par où il a passé, the places through which he has passed.

EXERCISE.

so much falsehood, I who did not suspect soupçonner ind.-2. de fausseté cunning, and perfidy, in a man whom I loved, or. ruse pr. que aimer ind.-2. blindly followed his counsels. Thou who art canje suivre ind .- 3. dour and innocence itself, do not confide toe The great empire of the Egyptians which lightly. légèrement. Sepostris founded, and which was as fonder ind.-3. com. it were detached from all the others, was not of long durationdétacher de dwée f. What! is it you, my drughter, who would wish Quoi ce fille you less? We, who know the value of aimer subj.-2. I should love time, ought to make a good use of it, instead of wastdevoir ind.-1. * faire en au lieu de inf.-1.
ing it in idleness and frivolity. The greatest men that art. inutilisé glory of Greece, Homer, have been the ornament and art. art. Grece Pythagoras, Plato, even Lycurgus and Solon, those two Pythagore mime 2 Lycurgue celebrated legislators, and so many others, went législateur tant de aller aller ind .- 3wisdom in Egypt. Every thing in the * apprendre art. and perishes; but the writings which universe alters s'altérer férir shall be immortal. The art of genius has dictated dieter inf .- 3. pl. rendering the bodies sound and robust, which our carelessness sain has made us lose, was well known to the ancients. A power which terror and force have founded fonder f. puissance f. art. art. be of long duration. Persons of a middle cannot pouvoir ind .- 1. commun 2. condition have not the same need of being cautioned besoin m. inf.-1. précautionner against dangers to which elevation and inf .- 3. art. ¿cueil pl. art. authority expose these who are destined to govern destiner inf .- 3. EE11.8 mankind. The protection on which he relied has sur compter ind .- 2. kemme pl. been too weak. The satire which you have mentioned to parler foible dont me has not even the merit of malignity. That after art. méchanceté f. mime o wishes for go d, sighs most rouloir ind. 1. art. souperer τολ ch the man who wishes for ardently, is to spread that sentiment of benevalence bienweiliance ordenment ce de répandre ce which should unite and bring together all menrathrocher art. dereir cond.-1.

The only moments in which his soul still opens seul instant pl. où son encore 2. s'ouvrir 1. to pleasure are those which he devotes to study.

art. ceux qui consacrer art.

§. IV.

ABSOLUTE PRONOUNS.

Absolute pronouns are so called, because they never have any relation to an antecedent: they are generally used in an interrogation. These are: qui, que, quel, quoi, où.

Qui is for quelle personne, what person, or qui est ce qui, who is it that Qui vous a dit cela? who told you that? that is: qui est-ce qui vous a dit cela?

or, quelle personne vous a dit cela?

Que and quoi, are for quelle chose, what thing: que (quelle chose) dit-on? what do they say? a quoi (a quelle chose) s'occupe-t-on? what are they about? If they be followed by an adjective, the word de is put before that adjective: as, que dit-on de nouveau? what news is there? quoi de plus amusant et de plus instructif? what more amusing and instructive?

Quel always precedes a substantive, with which it agrees in number and gender: it generally expresses admiration: quelle instabilité dans les choses humaines!

what instability in human affairs!

Où, d'où, and par où, are absolute pronouns, when they are at the beginning of a sentence, and stand for the name of a thing, joined to the pronoun quel, or when they are for quoi, as: où (en quel lieu) allez-vous? whither (to what place) are you going? où (a quoi) aspirez-vous? where (what) do you aim at? Par où (par quels lieux) passerez-vous? where (through which places) shall you pass?

EXERCISE.

Who will not agree that life has few real pleasures

convenir art. peu de 2. 1.

and many dreadful pains? What have you read

beaucoup de affreux C. f-pl. 1. lire ind-4.

in that book, that can have raised in your soul

ce qui pouvoir subj.-3. porter

agitation and enthusiasm? At what did you

art. art.

and them employed? What have you retrouver pl. ind.-4. occupé pl. re-marked good, beautiful, and sublime in Hesiod, Homer, marquer de pr. pr. Theocritus, and Sophocles? What more brilliant, and at the same time more false than the expressions of a man, who has a great deal of wit, but wants judgment and qui manquer de than envy or hatred! taste! What more blind aveugle must have been that extraordinary man (Homer), of étre ind .- 4. themselves the whom seven cities have envied se disputer ind.-4. glory of having given him birth! What gracefulness, awoir art. jour. grâce what delicacy, what harmony, what colouring, what beauticoloris m.

ful lines in Racine! Whither shall you go, that vers m. vi aller ind.-7.

you will not find in the upbraidings of your controuver subj.-1.

science, the most terrible enemy of your happiness?

redoutable 2. 1.

§. V. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Demonstrative pronouns are those which point out, as it were, the objects of which we are speaking. These are: ce, ci, là, celui-ci, celui-là, ceci, cela. When we say: ce livre, this book, cette table, that

table, we show a book, a table.

Ce joined to a noun, takes both genders, and both numbers. We put ce before a masculine substantive singular, beginning with a consonant, or h aspirated, as: ce livre, this book, ce héros, this hero: cet before a noun beginning with a vowel, or h mute, as: cet homme, this man, cet enfant, that child: cette before a noun feminine, singular, whatever the initial letter may be, as: cette fierté, this pride, cette ame, that soul, cette histoire, this history, cette haine, that hatred: and ces before plural nouns of both genders: ces ruses, these tricks, ces injustices, those pieces of injustice, ces héros, these heroes.

Of ze and the personal pronoun lui, we have made The pronoun celui, which makes celle in the feminine singular; ceux in the masculine plural, and celles in the feminine plural. It is not a demonstrative pronoun of itself, but only when it is joined to the two

following ones.

Ci and là are real demonstratives, and formerly, ci was used by itself; for, we frequently find in Madame de Sevigné's Letters, such expressions as these: entreci et la Pentecote, between this and Whitsuntide : but. at present, it is always placed at the end of a noun: cet homme-ci, this man. As for la, it is used either by itself, or at the end of a word: cet homme-là, that man; il est là, he is there, that is, dans ce licu-la, in that place. The first denotes the nearest object, and the second the farthest.

Ci and là joined with celui, form the demonstratives celui-ci, and celui-là, which take both genders and both numbers: celui-ci plaît, this pleases; celui-

là captive, that captivates.

946

Ci and là joined to ce form the two other demonstratives ecci and cela, which are used by themselves; but, when they are in opposition, ceci denotes the nearest object, and cela the farthest: ceci n'est que risible, mais cela me parcit atroce, this is only laughable, but that seems to me atrocious.

EXERCISE.

Nothing is more opposite to that true eloquence, véritable opposé whose function it is to ennoble every thing, than the use de ennoblir emplo: of those fine thoughts, and the search after those ideas, recherche de light, thin, without consistency, and which, like leger délie comme * art. leaf of metal beaten, acquire brightness, only by battu ne prendre de art. éclat losing from their solidity. This man has nothing in common with that hero. The season of one year is, for man, the same as that of the preceding year, the same précédent 2. f.1.

as that of all ages. The pleasures of the wise resemble art.

in nothing those of a dissipated man. He that suffers bler à dissipé 2. 1. se laishimself to be ruled by his passions must ser dominer devoir ind.-1. renounce happiness. This scene is calculated to a art.

interest all men, and at all times; but that cannot intéresser art. dans art. -là

succeed. The body perishes, the soul is immortal; yet

cependant
all the cares are for that, while we neglect this. This is

tandis que

low and mean, but that is grand and sublime.
tas rampant

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

Indefinite pronouns are those which denote things in a vague, indeterminate manner.

There are four sorts of indefinite pronouns.

1°. Those which are never joined to a substantive, viz. on, quelqu'un, quiconque, chacun, l'un l'autre,

autrui, personne, rien.

On, either an abbreviation or a corruption of the word homme, denotes a kind of third person indeterminate, and is of very great use in the French language: on frappe à la porte, somebody knocks at the

door; on dit, they say.

OBSERVATION. We put l' before on, when following et, ou, si, unless that pronoun be followed by le, la, les, as: on pense et l'on dit tout haut, people think and say aloud; le lieu où l'on va, the place whither they are going: but we ought to say: et on la lira, and people will read it.

We observe the same thing before the e which has the sound of q: on apprend plus aisément les choses que l'on comprend, que celles que l'on ne comprend pas, we learn more easily what we understand, than what

we do not understand.

Quelqu'un is used either with or without relation to

a noun.

In the first instance, it means quelque personne, some person; it never is put in the plural, but when

it is the subject of the sentence, and is only applied to persons, as: quelqu'un crost-il encore aux revenans? does any body still believe in ghosts? tenir de quelqu'un, to have of somebody; nuire à quelqu'un, to injure somebody; quelques-uns assurent, some people affirm. We no longer say: un quelqu'un.

In the second instance, that is, when quelqu'un is used without any relation to a noun, it takes gender and number, and applies to both persons and things. In this case, it is always followed by a noun or pronoun, preceded by the preposition de, as: quelqu'un de vous, some one of you; prétez-moi quelques-unes de ces brochures, lend me some of those pamphlets.

Quiconque, whoever, means toute personne, every person: it is of itself masculine singular, and is never said but of persons, as: quiconque connoît les hommes apprend à s'en défier, whoever knows mankind, learns to mistrust them: ce discours s'adresse à quiconque se sent coupable, this speech is addressed to (meant for) whoever feels himself guilty.

Chacun, each, every one, means chaque personne, chaque chose, each person, or thing, and is used either with or without relation to a noun. In the first instance, it applies only to persons, as: chacun vit à sa guise, every one lives according to his own-liking; rendre à chacun ce qui lui est du, to give every one his

due; we no longer say: un chacun.

In the second instance, it applies both to persons and things, and is followed by the preposition de, as: éprouvez séparément chacun de vos amis, try each of your friends separately: quel est le priv de chacune de ces médailles? what is the price of each of the e medals?

L'un l'autre, one another, applies both to persons and things: it takes both genders, and both numbers, and requires the article before the two words of which

it is composed.

These two words may be used either jointly or

separately.

When jointly, they express a reciprocal relation between several persons, or several things. The first is never preceded by a preposition, but the second may, as: on doit se secourir l'un l'autre, we ought to assist one another: les peuples souffrent presque toujours des guerres que les états se font les uns aux autres, the people always suffer from the wars which govern-

ments are waging against one another.

When used separately, they denote a division, and in this case, they may be preceded by a preposition. L'un relates to the person or thing mentioned first, and l'autre to the person or thing mentioned last, as: les passions s'entendent les unes avec les autres; si l'on se laisse aller aux unes, on attire bientôt les autres, our passions always go hand in hand with one another; if we give way to some, we soon bring on the others.

Autrui, in general means les autres, other people: it only applies to persons, is never joined to an adjective, takes neither gender nor number, and is never used in a sentence without being preceded by a preposition, as: n'enviez pas le bien d'autrui, do not covet other people's property: ne faites pas à autrui, ce que vous ne voudriez pas qu'on vous fit, do not to others what you would not wish that others should do to you.

Personne means either nul homme, nobody, or

quelqu'un, somebody.

When it means nobody, it is always either preceded or followed by the negative ne, except in cases which denote exclusion, as: la fierté ne convient à personne, pride becomes nobody: personne ne sait s'il est digne d'amour ou de haine, nobody knows whether he deserves love or hatred. But we say, without a negative: cette place lui convient mieux qu'à personne, that

place suits him better than any body else.

When it means somebody, it is used without a negative in phrases of interrogation or doubt, as: personne a-t-il jamais conté plus naïvement que la Fontaine? did any body (for somebody) ever write a tale with more naïveté than la Fontaine? Je doute que personne ait mieux peint la nature dans son aimable simplicité, que le sensible Gessner? I doubt whether any man ever painted nature in its amiable simplicity better than the sentimental Gessner.

Rien, nothing, masculine singular, is used either with or without a negative. When with a negative, it means nulle chose, nothing, as: il ne s'attache à vien de solide, he applies himself to nothing solid. Without a negative, it means aueune chose, any thing, or quelque chose, something, as: je doute que rien soit plus propre à faire impression, que, &cc. I doubt whether any thing be more fit to make an impression,

than, &c. It always requires de before the adjective that fol-EXERCISE. One cannot read Telemachus, without becoming art. Télémaque devenir inf .- 1. better; we there find every where an amiable philosomeilleur on y trouver par-tout doux noble and elevated sentiments: que there find in pr-art. 2. 3. 1. 2 every line the effusions of a noble soul, and chaque ligne épanehement beau on mire precepts calculated to operate the happiness of pr. art. propre faire
the world. Can any body be still ignorant that it is from cond.-1. 1gnorer the earliest infancy that we ought to form the mind, on devoir ind .- 1. # the heart and the taste? Whoever has studied the principles of an art or science, knows that it is only by length pr-adj.

of time and by deep reflections, that he can succeed f. pl. on * parvenir them his own.

in making them his own.

ind.-1. à se rendre inf.-1. * propre pl. for the sake of his own happiness, listen devoir cond.-1. ne écouter only to the voice of reason and truth. Examine art. examiner imp. art. with the greatest care every one of these engravings. gravure f. pl. 1 our author's episodes are connected, and so artart. 2. 5. 6. pr. 4. épisodes 3. continu fully interwoven into each other, that the former

bilement enclavé dans brings on that which follows. The passions which belong amener * sitit. apparterir to tragedy, are terror and pity: those which art.

agtee with epopæa are admiration and love: convenir à art.

in one, the actors speak; in the other, the poet makes the narration. To most men the evils of others are but Pour la plupart de autrui ne que a dream. An egotist loves nobody, not even his own chil
egotiste dren: in the whole universe, he sees nobody but himself.

ne que lui seul He was, more than any body else, worthy of the confidence ind.-2.

with which the king honours him. Did any body ever dont
paint nature with more majesty than Buffon? There ind.-4
was nothing but grandeur in the designs and avoir ind.-2. que de grand art, works of the Egyptians. I doubt whether there is any

thing better calculated to raise the soul than the contempla
plus propre élever

tion of the wonders of nature.

merveille pl.

OBSERVATION. Mr. du Marsais observes, that, after rien, quelque chose, quoi que ce soit, &c. we ought to put the preposition de, because, in that case, the adjective is used substantively, and that we only put the preposition de, because the adjective that becomes a substantive, is taken in a qualifying, and not in an individual sense.

2°. The indeterminate pronouns, which are always joined to nouns, are: quelque, chaque, quelconque, certain. These words should not have been classed among the pronouns; for, they are real adjectives: quelques personnes, some persons; chaque peuple, each people; raison quelconque, reason whatever; certain auteur, a certain author; we also say: un certain auteur.

Some enlightened people, among the Egyptians, preéclairé '2, esprit pl. parmi conserved the idea of a First Being, whose attributes server ind.-2. (tre art. attribute

they represented under various symbols: this is pl. 3. 1. représenter 2. sous différent c'est ce c'est ce que by the following inscription upon a temple: proved prouver ind .- 1. cette has been, is, and shall be: no mortal ever I am all that ce qui the veil that covers me. Every nation has couvrir lever ind .- 4. in its turn shone on the theatre of the world. There is no scène briller him to it. reason whatever that can bring pouvoir subj.-1. déterminer Some figures appear monstrous and deformed, considered

separately, or too near; but if they are put in their proper

de trop près on les mettre

light and place, the true point of view restores their jour pr. rendre *
beauty and grace. A certain author, whose name I

art. art art. 2. do not recollect, contends that an Egyptian colony was estase rappeller 1. prétendre 2. 1. s'établished in China, towards the year 1122 before blir ind.-3. à art. vers an avant Christ, and transported thither the history of Egypt, which J. C. transporter y

was ingrafted on the true Chinese history.

3°. Those which are sometimes joined to nouns and sometimes not, are nul, aucun, pas un, autre, l'un et l'autre, même, tel, plusieurs, tout. When joined to nouns they are adjectives, otherwise, they are pronouns.

Nul, aucun, pas un, none, not one, denote exclusion: they have nearly the same signification; yet they are not used indiscriminately one for the other. Nul and pas un are always accompanied by a negative; but not aucun, in interrogations, or when a

doubt is expressed.

Nul. Nul ne sait s'il est digne d'amour ou de haine, nobody knows whether he is deserving of love or of hatred: nulle vérité dans ce tableau, (there is) no truth in that picture.

Aucun, none, is obsolete in the singular, when it is not joined to a noun, and used in the plural only

in the marotic style: il ne se rend à aucun raison, he will yield to no kind of reasoning.

Observe, that it is now better to say: ne se rendre

à aucune raison, than à nulle raisen.

Pas un, not one, is but seldom used, except in a familiar style, or in proverbial expressions, as: pas un n'y croit, not one will believe it; il est aussi savant que pas un, he is as learned as not one.

Nul, aucun, pas un, when joined to substantives, take the feminine gender, but are never used in the plural. Racine committed a fault in saying aucuns

monstres.

Those three pronouns are followed by the preposition de, as, nul de vous, none of you; aucune de ces brochures, none of these pamphlets; pas un de ces

tableaux, not one of those pictures.

Autre, other, pronoun: un autre pourroit-il vous être plus utile? could any other be more useful to you? demandez à un autre? ask of another? Adjective: les anciens ne croyoient pas à la réalité d'un autre monde, the ancients did not believe in the reality of another world.

L'un et l'autre, both, denote the assemblage of several persons or things, and take both genders and both numbers. L'un et l'autre le pensent ainsi, both think it so: il est très rare qu'on se serve également bien de l'une et de l'autre main, we seldom see a person use both hands equally well.

Même, same, is used with both genders and both numbers: as a pronoun, it denotes identity, that is, that the person, or thing, spoken of, is the same that has already been mentioned, as: le même m'est venue

voir, the same man is come to see me.

Tel, such, pronoun, is put for a person one wishes to denote in an indeterminate manner, or for celui, he, as: l'orage tombera sur tel qui n'y pense pas, the lightning with strike him who least suspects it: tels some qui souvent ne recueille rien, such sow that often reap nothing. Adjective, it expresses the comparison of a person or thing, but without saying in what that person or thing is compared, as: un hamme tels

que vous est fait pour les grandes choses, a man like you, or, such a man as you, is born for great things.

Plusieurs, many, several, pronoun, applies to persons only, and denotes an indeterminate number, as: plusicurs sont trompés en voulant tromper les autres, many are deceived in wishing to deceive others. Adjective, it applies both to persons and things, as: plusieurs officiers, several officers: plusieurs arbres,

many trees.

Tout, all, every, pronoun, means every thing, as: tout disparoit devant Dieu, every thing vanishes before God. Adjective, it has two different meanings: either denoting the generality, or the whole extent of a thing; or, being put for chaque, each. In the first instance, it requires the article betwixt it and the noun, as: tous les hommes, all men: toute la famille, the whole family. In the second, it rejects the article, and always remains in the singular, as: tout homme est sujet à la mort, every man is doomed to die.

EXERCISE.

None likes to see himself as he is. No expression, no aimer tel que truth of design and colouring, no strokes of genius in that great trait work. He is so ignorant, and, at the same time, so obstinate, that he will not be convinced by any reasoning. None se rendre à raisonnement.

of his works will be handed down to posterity. Would passer art.

any other have been so self-conceited as to think avoir de l'amour-propre cond.-2. assez * that his own opinion could balance the public particulier f. pouvoir subj.-2. 2. one? Reason and faith equally demonstrate opinion l. art. art. également démontrer that we have been created for another life, of which this is

only a shadow. Both relate the same story, ne que * art. ombre rapporter fait though neither of them believes it to be true. Both ni ni ne penser que subj.-1. 2. those means appear to me chimerical. Does he always 1. moyen parofire *

maintain the same principles? Yes, they are absolutely the sume. Such a conduct is inexplicable. Many, by endeavouren s'efforcer to injure others, injure themselves nuire à se nuire than they think. Several philosophers are justly iustement reof having kept truth captive. procher à inf .- 1. tenu art.

4°. Those which are followed by que, which are: qui que ce soit, quoi que ce soit, quoi que, quelque que, quel que, tout que, &c. These pronouns evidently

partake of the nature of conjunctions.

Qui que ce soit, whoever, always masculine singular, applies only to persons, and is used either with or without a negative. With a negative, it means personne, nobody, as: il n'aime qui que ce soit, he loves nobody whatever. Without a negative, it means, quelque personne que ce soit, what person soever, as: qui que ce soit qui vienne, dites que je n'y suis pas, whoever comes, say I am not at home.

Quoi que ce soit, whatever, always masculine singular, relates to things only. With a negative, it means rien, nothing, as: sans application, on ne peut exceller en quoi que ce soit, without application, one cannot excel in any thing. Without a negative, it means, quelque chose que ce soit, what thing soever, as : quoi que ce soit qui lui arrive, il est toujours le meme, whatever may happen to him, he is always

the same.

Quoi que, always masculine singular, relates only to things, and means, quelque chose que, which it is often better to use instead of quoi que: quoi que vous fassiez, vous ne le ferez pas revenir de ses préjugés, whatever you do, you will never make him get over his prejudices.

Quelque que is either joined to a substantive alone, or accompanied by an adjective, either before or after, and then it means quel que soit le .. que, as: quelques richesses que vous ayez, whatever riches vou may have : quelques belles actions que vous fassiez, whatever fine actions you may do. Or it is joined to an adjective separated from its substantive, and then it means, à quelque point que, to what degree soever, as: ces actions quelque belles qu'on les suppose, &c. Those actions, however fine, or how fine soever, they may be supposed, &c.

Quel que has the same meaning as quelque que, joined to a substantive: it applies both to persons and things, and takes gender and number, as: les hommes, quels qu'ils soient, men, whatever they may be: quelles que soient les offres d'un ennemi, whatever an

enemy's offers may be.

Observe, that quelque que, and quel que, are not used indiscriminately one for another, as will be seen in Chap. X.

Tel que, such as, serves to express comparison, as: on craint de se voir tel qu'on est, we are afraid of sec-

ing ourselves such as we really are.

Tout que. Tout sage qu'il est, however wise he may be, for all he is wise, though he is wise, for all his wisdom, &c.

EXERCISE.

Passenger, vohoever thou art, contemplate with a rePassant,
ligious respect this monument erected by gratitude;
2 1
it is the tomb. of a just and beneficent man. How

it is the tomb of a just and beneficent man. How

ce tombeau 2 bienfaisant 3. I Comment

will you have any body to love him? He has no

routeir ind-1. que on * subj-1. avoir

regard for any body rohatever. Whatever he may

des égards (pas is not expressed)

do or say, he finds it very difficult to destroy pre-

faire sub-1. dire avoir de la peine détruire (des) judices so deeply rooted. A mind vain, presumptuous,

profondément enraciner

and inconsistent, will never succeed in any thing whatever.

sans consistance réussir en

Whatever a frivolous world may think of you, never 2 1 powvoir subj-1

swerve from the path of truth and virtue.

se détourner de art. route art. pr- art.

About quelque que, see Chap. X

The man who descends into himself only to perceive ne rentrer en que pour y démèler his own defects, and correct them, likes to see himself as corriger se voir he is.

About tout que, see Chap. X.

CHAP. V.

OF THE VERB.

The verb is a word the chief use of which is to express affirmation. When we say: la vertu est aimable, virtue is amiable, we affirm that the quality aimable belongs to la vertu. Likewise, when we say: le vice n'est point aimable, vice is not amiable, we affirm that the quality aimable does not belong to le

vice: the verb est expresses that affirmation.

OBSERVATION.—Every verb, to denote affirmation, must have a subject and an attribute. The subject is that of which something is affirmed, and, in French, it ought always to be expressed. The attribute is that which is affirmed of the subject. The attribute is included in the verb; except étre, to be, when it does not mean to exist: j'aime, I love, is for je suis aimant, I am loving.

We know a verb, in French, when we can add to it these pronouns, je, tu, il or elle, nous, vous, ils or

elles, as:

Fe lis, I read. Nous lisons, We read.
Tu lis, Thou readest. Vous lisez, You read.
Il, or elle lit, He, or she reads. Ils, or elles lisent, They read.

We reckon five sorts of verbs, viz: the active, pas-

sive, neuter, reflected, and impersonal.

The verb active is that after which we may put quelqu'un, or quelque chose: aimer, to love, is an active verb, because we may say: aimer Dieu, to love

God; aimer l'étude, to love study.

The word which follows the verb active is called the government or regimen of that verb, and we know this regimen by asking the question: qu'est ce que? what is it? Example: qu'est-ce que j'aime? What do I love? Answer: Dicu, God. Dicu, therefore, is the regimen of the verb j'aime.

The

The verb passive is that which is formed of the active, by making its regimen the subject of the passive, and adding de or par after the verb, as: je suis aimé de mon père, I am loved by my father.

The verb neuter is that after which we cannot put quelqu'un, or quelque chose. Dormir, to sleep, lan-guir, to pine, are neuter, because we cannot say: dormir quelqu'un, to sleep somebody, languir quelque chose, to pine something.

The verb reflected is that which is conjugated through all its tenses with two pronouns of the same person. Se repentir, to repent, is a reflected verb.

because we conjugate it thus:

Te merepens I repent, Nous nous repentions We repent, Tute repens Thou repentest Vous vous repentez You repent, Ils se repent He repents, Ils se repentent They repent.

The verb impersonal is that which is never used but in the third person singular. Pleuvoir, to rain, is impersonal, because it has only the third person, through all its tenses: il pleut, it rains; il pleuvoit.

it did rain, &c.

The attainment of the French language would be attended with less difficulty, if all the verbs were regular; but it is far otherwise; for, some are irregular. and others defective. Regular verbs are those which through all their tenses, have terminations conformable to those of the verb which serves them as a model. Irregular verbs are those to which the terminations of the verb serving as a model do not conform through all its tenses; and defective verbs are those which are wanting in certain tenses or persons, which custom does not admit.

The terminations of verbs vary according to the

different persons, numbers, tenses and moods.

We have already seen that there are three persons and two numbers. The first person is marked by je, I, in the singular, and nous, we, in the plural: the second by tu, thou, in the singular, and vous, ye, or you, in the plural: and the third by il, he, or elle, she, in the singular, and ils, or eiles, they, in the plural. All substantives, either common or proper,

are in the third person.

There are three tenses, viz. the present, denoting that the thing is, or is doing, at the time it is mentioned, as: je lis, I read: the past, or preterit, denoting that the thing has been done, as: j'ai lu, I have read: the future, denoting that the thing will be done, as: je lirai, I shall read. But these tenses are subdivided into others, so that we have several preterit, and several future tenses.

There are five moods, or ways of expressing affir-

mation, in the French verbs.

1°. The *Indicative*, when the different tenses are expressed, with plain simple affirmation.

2°. The Conditional, when the affirmation is ex-

pressed, with a dependance upon some condition.

3°. The *Imperative*, when, besides the affirmation, we express the act of commanding, exhorting or requesting.

4° The Subjunctive, when we express the affirmation, with a dependance upon something before

mentioned.

5°. The *Infinitive*, when the affirmation is expressed in an indefinite manner, without either number or person.

OF CONJUGATIONS.

To conjugate a verb is to recite its different moods

with all their tenses, numbers and persons.

We have four conjugations, which are distinguished by the termination of the present of the infinitive. The 1st. has the infinitive in er, aimer, to love: the 2d. in ir, finir, to finish: the 3d. in oir, recevoir, to receive: and the 4th in re, rendre, to render.

We have also two auxiliary verbs, viz. avoir, to have, and etre, to be, so called, because they serve to conjugate all the others: they ought, therefore, to be known well, before we give the models of the dif-

ferent conjugations.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERES,

Avoir, To have.

INDICATIVE.

Present.

J'ai I have
Tr as Thou hast
Il, or elle a He, or she has
Nous avons We have
You have
Ils, or elles ont They have.

Imperfect.

Tavois
Tu avois
That, or did have
Thou hadst
He had
Nous avions
Vous aviez
Ho had
You had
They had.
They had.

Preterit definite.

TensI hadTu ensThou hadstIl cutHe hadNous cûmesWe hadVous cûtesYou hadIls eurentThey had.

Preterit indefinite.

Tai cu
Thou hast had
Thou hast had
It a eu
He has had
We have had
Yous avez cu
Its ont eu

I have had
You have had
They have had.

Preterit anterior.

Teus eu
I had had
Tu eus eu
Il eut eu
He had had
K 2

Nous câmes eu Vous cútes eu Ils eurent eu We had had You had had They had had.

s eu

Pluperfeet.
I had had

J'avois eu
Tu avois eu
Il avoit eu
Nous avions eu
Vous aviez eu
Ils avoient eu

Thad had
Thou hadst had
He had had
We had had
You had had
They had had.

Future absolute.

J'aurai Tu auras Il aura Nous aurons Vous aurez Ils auront I shall have
Thou shall have
He shall have
We shall have
You shall have
They shall have.

Future past.

Paurai eu
Tu auras eu
Il aura eu
Nous aurons eu
Vous aurez eu
Ils auront eu

I shall have had
Thou shalt have had
He shall have had
We shall have had
You shall have had
They shall have had.

CONDITIONAL.

Present.

Faurois Tu aurois Il auroit Nous aurions Vous auriez Ils auroient I should, could or would Thou shouldst have [have He should have We should have You should have They should have

Past.

Jaurois, or j'eusse eu
Tu aurois, or eusses eu
Il auroit, or eût eu
Nous aurions, or eussions eu
Vous auriez, or eussiez eu
Ils auroient, or eussent eu

I should have had
Thou shouldst have had
He should have had
We should have had
You should have had
They should have had

(101)

OBSERVATION., All second persons singular end with an s. 12 - 12

IMPERATIVE.

Aie Qu'il ait Ayons Aycz Qu'ils aient Have (thou)
Let him have
Let us have
Have (ye)
Let them have

OBSERVATION. son singular.

The imperative has no first per-

SUBJUNCTIVE. Present.

Que j'aie Que tu aies Qu'il ait Que nous ayons Que vous ayez Qu'ils aient That I have or may have
That thou mayst have
That he may have
That we may have
That you may have
That they may have

Que j'eusse Que tu cusses Qu'il cût Que nous eussions Que vous cussiez Qu'ils eussent Imperfect.

That I had, or might have That thou mightst have That he might have That we might have That you might have That they might have

Que j'ais eu
Que tu aics eu
Qu'il ait eu
Que nous ayons eu
Que vous ayez eu
Qu'ils aient eu

Preterit.

Que vous ayez eu
Qu'ils aient eu
Pl.
Que j'eusse eu
Que tu eusses eu
Qu'il cût eu
Que nous eussions eu

Que vous eussiez eu

Gu'ils cussent cu

That I may have had
That thou mayst have had
That he may have had
That we may have had
That you may have had.
That they may have had.
Pluperfeet.

That I might have had That thou mights thave had That he might have had That we might have had That you might have had That they might have had.

К з

OBSERVATION. The subjunctive is always preceded by que.

INFINITIVE.

Present.

To have

Past.

To have had.

Participle present.
Ayant Having.

Participle past. Had. F_{II}

Ayant eu Having had.

Participle future. Devant avoir Being to have

The auxiliary verb avoir serves not only to conjugate itself, in the compound tenses, but also to conjugate the compound tenses of the verb etre, the active, the impersonal, and almost all the neuter verbs.

OBSERVATION I. As every teacher who wishes to forward the progress of his pupils ought first to make them learn perfectly the two auxiliary verbs. we have taken care to give exercises extremely simple, but nevertheless calculated to put a great quantity of words in their memory, and to shew them the mechanism of the French construction. The teacher must content himself with observing to the pupil, that, in the following exercises, he is to put between the auxiliary and the substantive, des, if that substantive be in the plural; du, if it be in the masculine singular, and beginning with a consonant; de la, if it be in the feminine singular and beginning with a consonant; and de P, if it be in the singular, and beginning with a vowel.

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT. I have books. Thou hast friends ami pl. We have livre pl. has honesty. She has sweetness. benadicie, la mu. douccur.f.

credit. You have riches.
m.
richesse. pl.
They have modesty.
f.
modesty.

2. IMPERFECT. I had ambition. Thou hadst
f.
wealth. He had sincerity. She had graces. We
bien. m. sincerité. f.
had oranges. You had pears. They had apples.
pl. paire. pl. m. penme. pl.
They had lemons.
f. citron. pl:

3. PRETERIT DEFINITE. I had plums. prune. pl. hadst cherries. He had strawberries. cerise. pl. fraise. pl. We had almonds. You had goosepine-apples. amande. p!. ananas. pl They had raspberries. berries. frambuise. pl. scille. pl. m. grapes. raisin. s-m.

4. PRETERIT INDEFINITE. I have had pleasure.

Thou hast had gold.

or. m.

has had beauty.

beauté. f.

had friendship.

amité. f.

have had sensibility.

sensibilité. f.

OBSERVATION II. In the following exercises, we have added an adjective to the substantive; upon which the pupil ought to be told that he is to make no change to the preceding observation, if the adjective be placed after the substantive; but, if it be placed before, then he is only to make use of de, when the adjective begins with a consonant, and d, when it begins with a vowel. We shall subjoin the figure 2 to the adjective, when it is to be placed after the substantive. The pupil ought to be told also that the adjective must agree in gender and number with the substantive, that the femining of adjectives is formed by the addition of e mute, when it has not this termi-

nation, and that the plural is formed by the addition of s to the singular.

5. PRETERIT ANTERIOR. I had had fine clothes. superbe habit. pl. Thou hadst had great riches. He had had excellent grand We had had good pens. You had had cruel bon plume. f-pl. pl.

They had had immense treasures. moments. m-pl.

trésor. pl. 6. PLUPERFECT. I had had good paper. Thou papier. m. She had had uncommon hadst had very black ink. fort noir 2. encre 1. f. rare 2. We had had good proceedings. procédé pl-m. pl. 1. had had honest proceedings. They had had charming honnéte 2. pl. 1. charmant flowers.

fleur. pl-f.

7. FUTURE ABSOLUTE. I shall have very ripe grapesbien mur 2. 1. Thou shalt have then exquisite figs. He shall have donc exquis 2. figue pl-f. 1.
We shall have good tea, and excelsucculent peaches. 2. pêche. pl-f. I. You shall have fine roses. lent coffee. rose pl-f. caffé. shall have ready money.

complant ?. argent. m. l. S. FUTURE ANTERIOR. I shall have had wise councon-Thou shalt have had ridiculous ideas. She sels. ridicule 2. idée 1. seil pl. will have had poignant griefs. We shall have had enisant 2. chagrin pl-m. 1. You will have had and real pleasures. réel 3. unavailing cares. They will have had horrid pains. inutile 2. soin pl. 1. horrible 2. peine pl-f. 1. CONDITIONAL.

OBSERVATION III. In the following exercises, the substantive sometimes will, sometimes will not beaccompanied by an adjective. The pupil must be told, that, when the verb is followed by several substantives. each of these is to be preceded by the words agreeing with it. Another very important observation tobe made is, that the English auxiliaries, should, would, and could, of the conditional, and may and might, of the subjunctive, are not to be considered as essentially and necessarily appertaining to those tenses, so that I should have, or I might have, ought always to be translated by j'aurois and j'eusse, and vice versa. It will be seen hereafter that it is not so; but, at present, we shall use those auxiliaries, merely to indicate what tense the exercise is on.

PRESENT. I should have studious pupils. Thou appliqué 2. élève pl-m. 1.

shouldst have precious engravings.

précieux gravure pl-f.
piêtures and looking-glasses.**

**We should have

iableau pl. miroir pl.

repose and glory. You would have pretty playthings.
repos m. gloire f. joli joujou. pl-m.
They should have pleasures and fine days.

pl. beau jour. pl-m.

PAST. I should have had formidable rivals. Thou redoutable 2. pl.-m. 1.

wouldst have had powerful encmics. He should have puissant 2. ennemipl-m. 1.

had just superiors. We would have had silver.

juste 2. supérieur pl-m. 1.

argent. m.

You would have had fortune, honors and friends.

They would have had experience and knowledge.

IMPERATIVE.

Have complaisance, regard and politeness. Let f. égard pl. honnéteté f.

him have success

succès m.

Have magnanimity.

Let us have courage and firmness,
m. fermeté f.

Let us have courage and firmness,
m. fermeté f.

Let them have manners and

magnanimité. f. mæurs pl.

conduct.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

OBSERVATION IV. In the following exercises, the learner must be told that a or an is to be rendered by un or une, according to the gender of the substantive.

PRESENT. That I may have a tender friend. That theu

mayst have a good watch. That he may have rich presents,

montre f.

présent pl.

That we may have fine weather. That you may have,

un temps m.

delightful days. That they may have a good master, and délicieux 2 pl. 1. maître m. gratitude. reconnoissance f.

IMPERFECT. That I might have a sword, a musket. épée f. fusil m.

That thou mightst have a knife, a spoon. and pistols. pistolet yl. m. couteau m. cuiller f. That he might have a penknife, pencils, and a fork.

canif m. pinceaupl.m. fourchette f. That we might have a coach, a good and good models.

modèle pl. m. carrossem. and furniture simple but elegant. That you house,

maison f. mcubte pl. m. mais might have health and great consideration. That they santé f. un

might have rich vassals.

vassal pl. m.

PRETERIT. That I may have had tulips, roses, and tulipe pl. pl. ranunculuses. That thou mayst have had a good horse and a renoncule pl. cheval m.

fine dog. That he may have had enlightened judges. éclairé 2. juge pl. m.1.

we may have had snow, rain, and wind. That you may

neige f. pluie f. vent m.
ave had a great dining-room,
salle à manger f. superbe sallon de

a pretty dressing-room, and a charming compagnie m. joli cabinet de toilette m. bed-room. That they may have had vast possessions,

chambre à coucher f. vaste pl. f. fine meadows and delightful groves.

2 bois pl. m. I. prairie pl. f.

PLUPERFECT. That I might have had friendship. That

thou mightst have had gloves, boots and horses.

gant pl. botte pl. pl he might have had zealous and faithful servants.

fidèle 'domest que pl. m. zélé

we might have had warm friends. That you might have chaud 2 pl m. 1

had fine clothes, precious jewels and magnificent furniture. magnifique 2. bijou pl.

That they might have had greatness of soul and piry. grandeur ame

OBSERVATION V. When the pupil has gone through the preceding exercises, he must be made to go over again through those of the indicative.

10. With a negative, telling him to put only de or d' before the substantive, according as it begins with a consonant or a vowel; likewise to put ne between the personal pronoun and the verb, and pas or point after the verb, in the simple tenses, or between the verb and the participle in the compound tenses.

I have no books. Thou hadst no wealth. She had no honesty. We have had no friendship.

You had not had powerful friends.

They will not have formidable enemies.

Ten'ai pas de livres. Tu n'avois pas de bien. Elle n'eut pas d'honnéteté. Nous n'avons pas eu d'amitié. Vous n'avrez pas eu de puissans

Ils n'auront pas d'ennemis redoutables.

2°. With interrogation and affirmatively, observing that, to form the interrogation, he is to put the personal pronoun after the verb, in the simple tenses, and between the verb and the participle, in the compound tenses, joining them with a hyphen (-); and that, when the verb ends with a vowel, he is to put between the verb and the pronoun a t, preceded and followed by a hyphen, thus, -t-, and that for the rest he ought to attend to what has been said in the obser-

vations upon this mood.

Have I books? Hadst thou wealth? Had she honesty?

Have we had good counsels? Avons-nous eu de bons conseils? Had you had prudence ? Will he have money?

Ai-je des livres? Avois-tu du bien ? Eut-elle de l'honnéteté?

Aviez-vous eu de la prudence? Aura-t-il de l'argent ? Will she have had protectors ? Aura-t-elle eu des protecteurs?

3°. With interrogation and negatively, observing that he ought to conform to what we have said in No. 1 & 2, but always placing pas or point after the pronoun, whether in the simple or compound tenses.

Have I no books? Hadst thou no friends ? Has she no wit:

N'ai-je pas de livres? N'avris-tu pas d'amis? N'a-t-elle point d'esprit?

Have we not had good pro-N'avons-nous pas eu de bons procédés ? ceedings ?

N'aciez-vous pas eu de nou-velles robes? Had you not had new gowns?

N'ai.:a-t-il pas de ressources? Will he have no resources? Will they have had no conso-N'a... int-elles pas eu de consulations ? lations ?

	0	
l	100	- 3

Etre, To be.

INDICATIVE.

ת			
~	1.66	ent.	

1	resent.	
	ée I am	loved.
Tu es	Thou art	
Il est	He is	
Elle est	She is	
Nous sommes aimés,	ées . We are	loved.
L'ous êtes	You are	
Ils or elles sont	They are	

Imperfect.

imperject.				
J'étois	aimé, ce	I was	loved.	
Tu étois		Thou wast		
Il étoit		He was		
Nous étions	aimés, écs	We were	loved	
Vous étiez		You were		
Ils étoient		They were		

Preterit definite.

Ie fus	aimé, ée	l was	loved.
Ie fus Tu fus	-	Thou wast	
Il fut		He was	
Nous fûmes	aimés, les	We were	loved
Vous fûtes	,	You were	
Ils furent		They were	

Preterit indefinite.

J'ai été	Thave been.
Tu as été	Thou hast been.
Il a été	He has been.
Nous avons été	We have been.
Vous avez été	You have been.
Ils ont été	They have been.

Present anterior.

Peus été	l had been.
Tu eus été	Thou hadst been.
Il cut été	He had been.
Nous cûmes été	We had been.
Vous cûtes été	You had been.
Ils eurent été.	They had been.
	Pluperfe&

(109)

Pluperfect.

J'avois été Tu avois été Il avoit été Nous avions été Vous aviez été Ils avoient été I had been.
Thou hadst been.
He had been.
We had been.
You had been.
They had been.

Future absolute.

Je serai Tu seras Il sera Nous serons Vous serez Ils seront I shall be.
Thou shalt be.
He shall be.
We shall be.
You shall be.
They shall be.

Future past.

Jaurai été Tu auras été Il aura été Nous aurons été Vous auroz été Ils auront été I shall have been. Thou shalt have been. He shall have been. We shall have been. You shall have been. They shall have been.

CONDITIONAL.

Present.

Je serois Tu serois Il seroit Nous serions Vous seriez Ils seroient I should be.
Thou shouldst be.
He should be.
We should be.
You should be.
They should be.

Past.

J'aurois, or j'eusse été Tu aurois, or eusses été Il auroit, or eût été Nous aurions, or eussions été Vous auriez, or eussiez été Ils auroient, or eussent été

I should have been.
Thou shouldst have been.
He should have been.
We should have been.
You should have been.
They should have been.

Ι.

IMPERATIVE.

Sois
Qu'il sois
Soyons
Soyez
Qu'ils soient

Be (thou).
Let him be.
Let us be.
Be (you).
Let them be.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present.

Que je sois Que tu sois Qu'il soit Que nous soyons-Que vous soyez Qu'ils soient That I may be.
That thou mayst be.
That he may be.
That we may be.
That you may be.
That they may be.

Imperfect.

Que je fusse Que tu fusses Qu'il fût Que nous fussions Que vous fussiez Qu'ils fussent That I might be.
That thou mightst be.
That he might be.
That we might be.
That you might be.
That they might be.

Que j'aie été Que tu aies été Qu'il ait été Que nous ayons été Que vous ofer été Qu'ils aiest été

Preterit.

That I may have been.
That thou mayst have been.
That he may have been.
That we may have been.
That you may have been.
That they may have been.

Pluperfeet.

Que j'eusse été
Que tu cusses été
Qu'il ent été
Que nous cussions été
Que vous cussion été
Qu'ils cussent été

That I might have been.
That thou mights have been.
That he might have been.
That we might have been.
That you might have been.
That they might have been.

INFINITIVE.

Present. Etre To be. Past.

Avoir été To have been.

Participle present. Etant Being

Participle past.

Eté, ayant été Been, having been.

Participle future.

Devant être Being to be.

The auxiliary verb, étre, serves to conjugate the passive verbs through all their tenses, the compound tenses of the reflected verbs, and those of about fifty neuter verbs.

EXERCISE.

OBSERVATION. The pupil must here be told, that, as the adjective takes gender and number, he ought to put it in the masculine or feminine, the singular or plural, as the pronoun subject may require: and that, besides, he ought to place before the adjective the adverb which will be found in the following exercises.

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT. I am very glad. Thou art quite amiable.

bien aise tou.-i.-fait aimable.

He is very lively. She is very lively. We are happy.

You are always just. They are witty. They are witty.

Ingours juste m. spirituel f.

IMPERFECT. I was very basy. The wast often fore occupe

dissipated. He was sometimes lazy. She was sometimes

dissipé quelquefois faresseux lazy. We were quiet. You were sad. They were f. tranquille triste m.

laborious. They were laborious. laborieux f. f.

PRETERIT DEFINITE. I was constant. Thou wast always wise and sedate. He was ingenious. She was sensible.

sage posé ingénieux

We were firm and courageous. You were good. They ferme courageax bon m.

were vicious. They were virtuous. vertueux f. vertueux f.

FUTURE ABSOLUTE. I shall be modest and perhaps peut-cire modeste timid. Thou wilt always be pettish, timide. quinteux opiniâtre He will be reasonable. She will be civil and captious. pointilleux raisonnable polite. We shall be good and complaisant. You will be poli f. mad and rash. They will be firm, generous, and valiant, ton téméraire m. They will be modest and handsome.

beau f.

PRESENT of the CONDITIONAL. I should be invincible. Thou wouldst be imprudent. He would be incorrigible. She would be beautiful. We snould be victorious. You beau victorieux would be learned and skilful. They would be inhuman and savant habile in inhumain cruel. They should be discreet and circumspect f. discret circonspect f.

Observation. As the compound tenses are formed of the different simple tenses of the verb avoir, and of the participle été, we shall merely mention here their formation, and the teacher may make his pupil go through them, if he think proper. We are even of opinion, that this exercise will prove infinitely useful in acquiring the facility of speaking.

PRETERIT INDEFINITE. I have been imprudent.

PRETERIT ANTERIOR. I had been more consequent.

PLUPERFECT. I had been young and thoughtless.

FUTURE ANTERIOR. I shall have been circumspect and prudent.

CONDITIONAL PAST. I should have been curious and

deceived.

IMPERATIVE.

Be just, liberal, honest and disinterested. Let him be desinteressed and clear. Let her be gentle, chaste and good. methodique clair down. Let us be equitable, humane and prudent. Be sober, sobre

stant and moderate. Let them be simple and judicious.

modéré judicieux

judicieux

Let them be sprightly, witty and amiable.

f. vif.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. That I may always be steady in inétranlable dans my principles. That thou mayst be invariable. That he mes principes may be docile and grateful. That she may be saving reconnoissant from and careful. That we may be perfect. That you may be soigneux parfait illustrious. That they may be punctual. That they may be illustre pontinel f.

IMPERFECT. That I might be proud and haughty. orgueil!eux That thou mightst be envious and jealous. That he might jaloux envieux be impudent. That she might be fickle, vain and impertiléger nent. That we might be flatterers, mean and cringing. flatteur bas ranipari That you might be hasty, cross and whimsical. That brusque bourru bizarre they might be wicked or malicious. That they might be méchani ma icieux scornful and arrogant.

PRETERIT. That I may have been grossly duped grossièrement duj é

trompé

dédaigneux

judicious.

PLUPERFECT. That I might have been so foolish and si imbécille

so stupid.

Observation. The exercises on the indicative should be gone through, first negatively, and then with interrogation, either affirmatively or negatively; observing, that the personal pronoun, which serves for the interrogation, and the two negative words, ne and pas, preserve the same place with the auxiliary verb être, as with aveir. In all those phrases, the adjective is the last word. It is also to be observed, that,

when there is an adverb, it ought to be placed after the verb, in the simple tenses, and between the auxiliary verb and the participle, in the compound tenses, which is a general rule for all verbs, when that adverb is only a single word, except in a few instances which shall be mentioned in their proper place.

FIRST CONJUGATION

In er.

Aimer, to love.

INDICATIVE.

Present.

Faime
Tu aimes
Il aime
Nous aimons
Vous aimez
Ils aiment

I love
Thou lovess
He loves
We love
You love
They love

Imperfect.

Paimois
Tu aimois
Il aimoit
Nous aimions
Vous aimiez
Ils aimoient

I did love
Thou didst love
He did love
We did love
You did love
They did love

Preterit definite.

l'aimai
Tu aimas
Il aima
Nous aimâmes
Vous aimâtes
Ils aimèrent

I loved
Thou lovedst
He loved
We loved
You loved
They loved

Preterit indefinite.

Sai o'mê Tu as aimé Il a aimé Nous avons aimé Vous avez aimé Ils ont aimé I have loved
Thou hast loved
He has loved
We have loved
You have loved
They have loved

(115)

Preterit anterior.

Jeus aimé Tu cus aimé Il cut aimé Nous cûncs aimé Vous cûtcs aimé Ils eurent aimé I had loved
Thou hadst loved
He had loved
We had loved
You had loved
They had loved

Pluperfeet.

Favois aimé
Tu avois aimé
Il avoit aimé
Nous avions aimé
Vous aviez aimé
Ils avoient aimé

I had loved
Thou hadst loved
He had loved
We had loved
You had loved
They had loved

Future absolute.

J'aimerai Tu aimeras Il aimera Nous aimerons Vous aimerez Ils aimeront I shall love
Thou shalt love
He shall love
We shall love
You shall love
They shall love.

Future past.

J'aurai aimé Tu auras aimé Il aura aimé Nous aurons aimé Vous aurez aimé Ils auront aimé I shall have loved Thou shall have loved He shall have loved We shall have loved You shall have loved They shall have loved.

OBSERVATION. There is a fourth preterit, which is but seldom used. We shall give it here, and observe that it is in every one of the four conjugations; j'ai cu aimé, tu as eu aimé, il a eu aimé, nous avons eu aimé, vous avez eu aimé, ils ont cu aimé.

CONDITIONAL.

Present.

J'aimerois Tu aimerois Il aimeroit I should love
Thou shouldst love
He should love

116)

Nous aimerions Vous aimeriez Ils aimeroient We should love You should love They should love

Past.

J'aurois, or j'eusse aimé Tu aurois, or eusses aimé Il auroit, or eût aimé Nous aurions, or eussions aimé I should have loved Thoushouldsthaveloved He should have loved We should have loved

Vous auriez, or eussiez aimé Ils auroient, or eussent aimé You should have loved They should have loved

IMPERATIVE.

Aime Qu'il aime Aimons Aimez Qu'ils aiment Love (thou)
Let him love
Let us love
Love (ye)
Let them love

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present.

Que j'aime Que tu aimes Qu'il aime Que nous aimions Que vous aimiez Qu'ils aiment That I may love That thou mayst love That he may love That we may love That you may love That they may love.

Imperfect.

Que j'aimasse Que tu aimasses Qu'il aimát Que nous aimassions Que vous aimassicz Qu'ils aimassent That I might love
That thou mightst love
That he might love
That we might love
That you might love
That they might love

Preterit.

Que j'aie aimé Que tu aies aimé

That I may have loved That thou mayst have loved

Qu'il ait aimé

That he may have loved

Qu'ils aient aimé

Que nous ayons aimé That we may have loved Que vous ayez aimé That you may have loved That they may have loved

Pluperfect.

Que j'eusse aimé That I might have loved That thou mightst have

loved

Qu'il cût aimé That he might have loved Que nous cussions aimé That we might have loved Que vous eussiez aimé That you might have loved Qu'ils cussent aimé That they might have loved

INFINITIVE.

Present.

to love.

Past.

Avoir aimé To have loved.

> Participle present. Aimant

Loving.

Participle past. imé Having loved. Ayant aimé

Participle future.

Devant aimer Being to love.

OBSERVATION. To conjugate the passive verb, we have only to add to the tenses of the verb etre the participle past of the verb active, in the masculine, or feminine, in the singular or plural, according to the gender and number, as : je suis aimé, or aimée, I ani loved: nous sommes aimés, or aimées, we are loved, as we have seen in the conjugation of the verb étre.

EXERCISE.

OBSERVATION.' In the following exercises the pupil must be told:

1°. That a or an are to be translated by un or une,

according to the gender.

2°. That the is to be rendered by le for the masculine, la for the feminine, l' before a noun beginning with a vowel or h mute, and les before a plural.

3°. That he must conform to the first two obser-

vations on the exercises on the auxiliary verb avoir,

when the French verb is followed by de.

4°. That when the French verb is followed by the word \hat{a} , he is, instead of \hat{a} , to use au, before a singular masculine, beginning with a consonant; à la before a singular feminine, beginning with a consonant; a l, before a singular beginning with a vowel or h mute; and aux before a plural: but that he is to use only à, if before the noun there be one of the following pronouns. When to is expressed in English or is to be translated by \hat{a} , this word is not put after the French

5°. That he is to translate my, thy, his, her, or its, by mon, ton, son, before a masculine, or a feminine beginning with a vowel or h mute; by ma, ta, sa, before a feminine beginning with a consonant; and by mes, tes, ses, before a plural of both genders: and our, your, their, by notre, votre, leur, before a singular, and nos, vos, leurs, before a plural.

6°. That he is to translate this or that before a substantive by ce, before a noun masculine beginning with a consonant, cet before a noun masculine beginning with a vowel or h mute, cette before a noun feminine; and these or those by ces before a

plural.

7°. That though, in English, the is sometimes not expressed, yet it ought always to be in French.

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT. I willingly give that plaything to your sister. volontiers donner Thou aggravatest thy evils. He proposes a salutary advice mal pl. profoser salutaire 2 avis 1. to his friends. We sincerely love peace and tranquillity. sincèrement faix You admire the spectacle of nature, They constantly admirer constamment comfort the afflicted.

offiigé pl. IMPERFECT. I incessantly thought of my misfortunes.

sans cesse penser à malheur pl.

Thou dreadest his presence and firmness. She accused her redouter. f. pro. friend of levity. We protected the just man. légéreté proséger hornme 1

despised a vain erudition. They disdained so weak an dédaigner foible 2 f. 1 mebriser enemy.

I gladly gave peaches and flowers to PRETERIT. avec plaisir (de)

my neighbours. Thou forgettest an essential circumstance. oublier essentiel 2 voisin

with a great He related that little and charming story petit charmant histoire f. avec * beaudeal of grace. We visited the grotto and the grove. You visiter grottef. bois m. constancy, courage and intelligence. They geshowed 260 montrer (de) nerously forgave their enemics.

néreusement pardonner à PRETERIT INDEFINITE. I have given up my favourite céder favori 2 horse to my cousin. Thou hast exchanged watches with changer de sing. thy sister. He gave fine copper-plates to his pupil. (de) gravure pl. pupile
have spoken a long while of your adventure. You have farler * long-tems aventure
insisted too much upon that point. They have immediately promptement insister trop prepared their ball-dresses. préparer habit de bal pl.

PRETERIT ANTERIOR. I had soon eaten my money bientôt manger

Thou hadst very soon and exhausted my resources. pl. épuiser reinforced thy party. He had in a moment surmounted en instant surmonié renforcer obstacles. We had soon shut the shutters pl. fermer volet pl. You had quickly and let down the curtains. promptement achiever eye they had dispersed the rideau pl. In the twinkling of an ail dissiper En * un clin mob.

populace. f. PLUPERFECT. He had drained dessécher mal sain Thou hast married a man rich, but without marsh. étouser marais m. He had rejected these advantageous offers avantageux 2 offict. 1 reietter

We had long listened to the singing with disdain. dédaigneusement. long-tems écouter * chant m. of the birds.
oiseau.
and history, You had already studied geography déjà étudicr géographie f. They had procured him a company procurer 2 lui 1 compagnie of cavalry, horses and arms. cavalerie, (de) (de) arme. pl.

FUTURE. I shall relieve the poor. Thou shalt soulager pauvre. pl.
faithfully keep that secret. He will consult enfid ement garder consulter (de) lightened judges. We shall prefer glory to préférer art. riches. You will afflict pleasure, and honour to art. art. They will astonish their your father and mother. mere. étonner père hearers.

auditeur. pl. FUTURE ANTERIOR. I shall soon have finished this Thou shalt certainly have appeased his anger certainement appaiser colère f. He will no doubt have triumphed over his enemies. triompher de sans doute You will have We certainly shall have rewarded merit. récompenser mérite. run to his assistance. They will have brought apporter (de) woler secours m. money.

CONDITIONAL.

PRESENT. I should form conjectures without numformer (de) Thou wouldst avoid so great a danger. ber. tre éviter 2. m. 1.
would unravel that business. We would drive away débrouilter affaire. You would discover that atrocious the importunate. importun pl. dévoiler They would unfold the clew of the intrigue. démêler fil complet. m. 1.

PAST. I should have liked hunting, fishing and saimer chasse f. piche f. Thou wouldst have played, if, the country, if, &c. campagne, f. si, &c. JOHET &cc.

&c. He would certainly have bowed to the company,

if, &c. We would gladly have praised his courage avec plaisir louer You would have awakened and disinterestedness.

désint ressement They would have paid their debts. every body. payer tout le monde.

OBSERVATION. The learner should construe the foregoing phrases negatively, and with interrogation, observing what has been said before upon the auxiliary verbs avoir and être.

IMPERATIVE.

Consult the light of reason. Let him love justice. Consulter lumière Let us swear to be true to a peace and virtue. jurer de fidèle 😕 Omit useless details.

Négliger (de) inutile 2.

their interpret good cause. Let them sacrifice their interest to the public good. sacrifier interet bien. m. 1

SUBJUNCTIVE. · PRESENT. That I may always listen to a severe censor

of my defects.

défaut. pl.

2. censeur. 1.

trouver (de) vrai

That thou mayst find real

That he may adorn his speeches with the parer discours de ure diction. That she may remain in her 2. 1. f. rester graces of a pure diction. That we may so hastily condemn the toudoir. hastily condemner Ugorement condemner That That you may pout incessantly, world. monde m. bonder sans cesse. they may thus work their own destruction. ainsi conspirer à perte. IMPERFECT. That I might copy his example. That imiter exemple. thou mightst give up treacherous friends. That abandonner (de) he might inhabit a cottage instead of a palace. That habiter chaumière f. an lieu palais. we might fall at the feet of a legitimate king. tomber à pied pl. * ait. légitime 2.

That you might respect the laws of your country.

respecter pays.

That they might speak at random.

à tort & à travers.

PRETERIT. That I may have caressed insolence and caresser

flattered pride. That thou mayst have added to thy flatter organil

fault. That he may have carried despair into his soul.

porter dans ame f.

That we may have blamed a conduct so prudent and so

blâmer conduite f.
wise. That you may have exasperated so petulant a

character. That they may have taken advantage of

the circumstances.

Pluperfect. That 1 might have burnt that work.

bråler

That thou mightst have contemplated on the beauties of contempler *

the country.

campagne.

natural qualities.

That he might have perfected perfectionner

That we might have gained the

victory. That you might have enchanted the public.

That they might have struck their enemies with fear.

frapper

de

SECOND CONJUGATION

This conjugation is divided into four branches, which are distinguished by the first person of the present of the indicative.

In the subsequent tables, we shall not insert the compound tenses, because they are the same in all verbs: for the same reason, we shall only give the first person of the imperfect and future of the indicative, and the present of the conditional.

Branch II. Branch III. Branch IV. Finir, to finish. Sentir, to feel. Ouvrir, to open. Tenir, to hold.

INDICATIVE.

	Present absolute.			
je finis	sens	ouvre	tiens	
tu tinis	séns	onvres	tiens	
il finit	sent	ouvre .	tient	

Branch I.	Brarch II.	Branch III.	Branch IV.
nous nnissons	sentons	ouvrons	tenons
	entez	ouvrez	tenez
ils finissent	sentent	ouvrent	tiennent
	Imperf	ect.	
je finissois	sentois <i>Preterit a</i>	ouvrois definite.	tenois
je finis	sentis	ouvris	tins
tu finis	sentis	ouvris	tins
il finit	sentit	ouvrit	tint
nous finîmes	sentîmes	ouvrimes	tinines
vous finîtes	sentîtes	ouvrites	tintes
ils finirent	sentirent	ouvrirent	tinrent
	Future a	bsolute.	
je finirai	sentira i	ouvrirai	tiendrai
	CONDIT		
je finirois	sentirois	ouvrirois	tiendrois
,	IMPERA		
		nd Future.	
			.•
finis	sens	ouvre	tiens
qu'il finisse	qu'il sente	qu'il ouvre	qu ii ticnne
finissons	sentons	ouvrons	tenons
finissez	sentez	ouvrez	tenez
qu'ils finissent	-	-	it qu'ils tiennent
	subjunc Present or		
que je finisse	sente	ouvre	tienne
que tu finisses	sentes	ouvres	tiennes
qu'il finisse	sente	ouvre	tienne
que nous finission	s sentions	ouvrions	tenions
que vous finissiez	sentiez	ouvriez	teniez
qu'ils finissent	sentent	ouvrent	tiennent
	Imper	rfect.	
que je finisse	sentisse	ouvrisse	tinsse
que tu finisses	sentisses	ouvrisses	tinsses
qu'il finît	sontit	ouvrît	tint
que nous finission	s sentissions	ouvrissions	tinssions
que vous finissiez	sentissicz	ouvrissicz	tinssicz
qu'ils finissent	sentissent	ouvrissent	tinssent
INFINITIVE.			
Carlo		ouvrir	Tenir
finir	sentir Pa	ouvrir	tennt
avoir fini	senti	ouvert	tenu

Branck I. Branch II. Branch III. Branch IV. Participle present. finissant tenant

sentant ouvrant Participle past. fini, ayant fini senti ouvert tenu

Participle future. devant finir sentir ouvrir

EXERCISE ON BRANCH I.

OBSERVATION. As the compound tenses are the same in all verbs, they will not be found in the following exercises: teachers may get their pupils to rejeat them, if they think proper. We shall also mare another alteration, viz. intermix simple phrases with interrogative and negative ones. The only thing to be observed is, that, whenever the pupil shall find, in the interrogative phrases, a substantive in the third person, he is to put that substantive at the head of the phrase, leaving the pronoun which serves for the interrogation, in the place already pointed out.

INDICATIVE.

Dost thou never PRESENT. I choose this picture. obey at the first impulse? Does he thus define that obein à mouvement word? Do you not pity his sorrows? They mot * compatir à arc finishing at this moment.

finir dans * art. IMPERFECT. I did forcarm his soul against the dangers * prémunir contre of seduction. Did the wise Socrates applaud the art. Socrate applaudir à follies of the young Alcibiades? Did we not frequently travers Alcibiade

warn our friends of the bad state of their affairs? You avertir

did not cure their evils. They invaded an immense guérir pl. , envahir ? country.

pays m. 1

PRETERIT. I softened my father by my submission.

Softened my father by my submission.

sourcession

He did not succeed through thoughtlessness.

Did not Alexréussir par ciourderie

ander sully his glory by his pride? We never ternir ne jamais betrayed that important secret. You freed your mind trahir 2 1 affranchir from the shackles of prejudice. Did the ancient de chaîne pl. art. préjugé pl. philosophers enjoy-great consideration?

FUTURE. Shall I succeed in this business? He will réussir
not embellish his house. We shall not sully the splendour

embellir maison f. We shall not sunly the spiendot

of our life by an unworthy action. Will you adorn indigne 2. 1. embellir your mind with all the splendour of imagery of Fenelon?

de brillant art. image pl.

Will they enrich their country by their industry?

enrichir. pays industrie

CONDITIONAL.

I should stillecherish life. Could he cure that encore chérir cruel disease? Should we not fulfil our promise?

Fradadie f. remplir promesse

You would not perish for misery. Shall men always périr de grow old without growing wiser?

Vicitlir devenir plus

IMPERATIVE.

Do not food thy imagination with those images! Let salar him unite gracefulness to beauty! Let us feed the grown Shudder with fear and shame.

Shudder with fear and shame.

From de crainte honte.

grow pale at the recollection of their crimes!

pálir à souvenir

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. That I may never blemish my reputation.

That he may not enjoy his glory. That we may not supply the wants of the poor. That you may punish fournir à besoin pl. the guilty. That they may establish wise and just laws. coupables établir 2. (de) 3. les 1,

TMPERFECT. That I might stun the whole neighétourdir 2. tout 1. voi-That he might swallow up so many riches. bourhood. engloutir tant de sinage m. That we might disobey the laws. That you might

désobéir à pl. of a vain and fickle world. the eyes

dazzle Than éblouir wil pl. they might weaken the force of their reasons. affaiblir raison

ON BRANCH II AND III.

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT. I feel all the unpleasantness of your situation. désagrément Does he go out soon? Do we not set off for the country? partir pour campagne sortir

Do you not tell a lie? mentir

They feel a great deal of pain.

I served my friends warmly. IMPERFECT. avec chaleur servir He complied at last with the wishes of his relations. Did consentir à erfin * parent pl. désir Did you not belie then? your chawe sleep démentir alors dormir Did they often come out from the bottom of racter? sortir

their mountains?

Lforesaw that terrible catastrophe. PRETERIT. pressentir Did he not go back again immediately? . Did we go out repartir sur le champ Did you not agree of the city before him? ville f. avant. lui consentir They served their country with couto that condition ? pairie servir

rage. FUTURE. A shall go out this evening. He will not sleep

soir. Shall we comply with that ridiculous quietly. consentir à tranquillement To a certainty, you will set all your readers bargain ? auditeur pl. marché 1 il coup sur

What ! they will not serve their friends ! asleep.

andormir Quoi

CONDITIONAL

I would open the door and the window. Would he ouvrir porte f. fenétre

set off again so soon? We should not easily get out tôt aisément sortir of this scrape. Could you smell the perfume of that mauvais pas m. sentir parfum garden? Could they foresee their misfortune?

THE FOLLOWING IMPERATIVE AND SUBJUNC-TIVE ON ERANCH IV.

Support thy character in good or bad fortune.

Soutenir dans art. art. f.

Let him come and receive the reward of his labours,

venir * recevoir récompense f. travail pl.

Let us gain the glory by our perseverance.

Obtenir

maintain so absurd an opinion. Let them keep their soutenir

2 1 maintenir

authority.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. That I may prevent such dangerous

prévenir* (de) si 2

enemies. That he may obtain his ends. That

1 **parvenir à fin pl.*

we may become just, honest and virtuous. That you may

devenir

return covered with laure's That they may agree

revenir couvert de laurier pl. convenir

about the conditions

de

IMPERFECT. That I might not bring about my

venir à bout de

designs. That he might not bear his disgrace with soutenir firmness. That we might belong to that great king.

That you might renounce your errors and prejudices,

That they might maintain the most abourd ideas, tenir à 2 1

THIRD CONJUGATION

In oir.

INDICATIVE.

fe reçois, tu reçois, il reçoit; nous recevons, vous recevez, ils reçoivent.

Je recevois, tu recevois, il recevoit, &c.

Je reçus, tu reçus, il reçut; nous reçûmes, vous reçûtes, ils reçurent.

le recevrai, tu recevras, &c.

CONDITIONAL.

Je recevrois, tu recevrois, &c.

IMPERATIVE.

Reçois, qu'il reçoive; recevons, recevez, qu'ils reçoivent.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Que je reçoive, que tu reçoives, qu'il reçoive; que nous recevions, que vous receviez, qu'ils reçoivent.

Que je reçusse, que tu reçusses, qu'il reçût; que nous reçussions, que vous reçussiez, qu'ils reçussent.

INFINITIVE.

Recevoir, avoir reçu, recevant, reçu, devant re-

EXERCISE.

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT. I perceive the summit of the Alps covered apprecessor somme: Alpes pl-f. with perpetual snow.

Does he understand well that de éternel neige, pl-f. & concessor bien rule so simple? We do not owe a large sum. règle devoir gioise somme f: Ought a firm and puge m.. Decoir 4 2. ceurageous man thus yield to circumstances?

IMPERFECT. I received his advice with respect and received his advice with respect and received havis pl.

gratitude. Did he see the custle from such a reconneissance.

appercevoir chickan si
We did not receive our income.

percevoir revenupt.

Did he conceive all the blackness of his crime? conceveir neirceur f.

PRETERIT. Did he conceive a great esteem for that

man? Did we not immediately perceive the snare?

1. austion appercevoir
the snare? You did not receive his letters in lettre pl. à

Did they conceive the depth of his plan ? time. profondeur f. temps

FUTURE. Shall I receive visits to-day? He will not discover the spire of his village.

appercavoir clocher m. shall conceive well founded hopes. Will you never (de) fondé 2. espérance. pl-f.

conceive so luminous a principle:
lumineux 2 principe m. 1 Shall men always

owe their misfortunes to their faults? devoir

CONDITIONAL. Should I receive the offers of my Should he thus give himself up to despair? enemy? Devoir

s'abandonner art. You Should we conceive such abstract ideas? (de) si abstrait 2 pl-f. 1
would easily perceive so gross a trick. Would they not

2 ruse, f.1

receive their friend with tenderness? tendresse

IMPERATIVE.

Conceive the horror of his situation. Let him receive this mark of confidence with gratitude. Let marque confiance
us never owe any thing. Receive no more of his

toir rien. plus

Let them at last perceive their errors. letters. appercevoir

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. That I may receive consolations. That (de) he may not conceive a thought so well developed. That pensée for présents. That you may

not perceive the danger of books contrary to good art. contre art. box

morals.

mæurs. pl-f.
taxes.

droit. pl. m.

That they may always gather unjust percevoir (de) injuste

IMPERFECT. That I might conceive that project. That he might perceive the secret designs of the enemy's appercevoir caché 2 dessein 1 ennemi* general. That we might not receive every body with civility. 1 That you might not conceive the depth of this

book. That they might not perceive the masts of mát pl.

the ship.

FOURTH CONJUGATION

In re.

This conjugation has five branches; the first is in aire, the second in oître, the third in ire, the fourth in aindre, and the fifth in dre, ere, pre, tre, and vre.

Branch I. Branch II. Branch III. Plaire, to please. Paroître, to appear. Réduire, to reduce. je plais je parois je réduis tu plais tu parois tu réduis il réduir il plaît il paroît nous plaisons nous paroissons nous réduisons vous plaisez vous paroissez vous réduisezils réduisent ils plaisent ils paroissent je réduisois ie plaisois je paroissois je plus je parus ie réduisis tu plus tu parus tu réduisis il réduisit il plut il parut nous plûmes nous parûmes nous réduisîmes vous plutes vous parûtes vous réduisites ils plurent ils parurent ils réduisirent je plairai je paroîtrai je réduirai je plairois je réduirois je paroîtrois

	(131)	
plais qu'il plaise plaisons, &c.	parois qu'il paroisse paroissons, &c.	réduis qu'il réduise réduisons, &c.
que je plaise que nous plai- sions	que je paroisse que nous parois- sions	que je réduise que nous rédui- sions
que je plusse que nous plus- sions	que je parusse que nous parus- sions	que je réduisisse que nous rédui- sissions
plaire plaisant plu	paroître paroissant paru	réduire réduisant réduit.
Branch IV Plaindre, to con		Branch V. ndre, to render.
je plains tu plains il plaint nous plaignons vous plaignez ils plaignent	vous	ends
je plaignois	je re	endois
je plaignis	je re	endis
je plaindrai	je re	endrai
je plaindrois	je re	endrois
plains qu'il plaigne plaignons plaignez qu'ils plaignen	rend rend	l rende ons

que je plaigne

que je rende

que je plaignisse

que je rendisse

plaindre plaignant plaint

rendre rendant rendu

EXERCISE ON BRANCH I, II AND III.

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT. I know his fiery and impetuous connoître bouillant 2 3 cemper. Does not virtue please every body? Are caractive 1 plaire à You seduce your hearers by instruire your modest exterior. Do they acknowledge their errors?

IMPERFECT. I did not displease by my conduct. Did

déplaire

he at last acknowledge his wrongs? We did not appear

tort paroître

convinced. Did you know that charming landscape?

They led people into error.

induire en

PRETERIT. I soon knew his intention. Did he not do away his prepossessions We led our friend back détruire prevention 1 reconduire to his country-house. Did you lead your children maison de campagne f. conduire enfant from truth to truth? Did those frightful spectres appear en en en effrayant 2. 1. apparoître again?

FUTURE. I shall draw a contrary consequence. Will déduire 2 1

not a thought true, grand and well expressed, please at exprimé dans att. pl.

great theatre next month.

art. prochain 2 1

FUTURE. I shall draw a contrary consequence. Will springe dans at exprimé dans ans prochain 2 1

Expression of the structure again.

egain? Will they always reduce our duties to ten-

cence?

CONDITIONAL. I should carry on the undertaking with conduire entreprise

success. Could sinderity displease the man of sense?

Should we build our house upon that plan? Would construire

you reduce your child to despair? Would they introduce introduire an unknown person into the world?

IMPERATIVE.

Know the powers of thy mind before thou write. Let force avant de cerire. him not lead the ignorant into error. Let us please

induire
by our gentleness and civility. Sweet illusions, vain

douctur honnéieté. Doux pl-f.
phantoms, vanish! Let them appear.
fantôme pl. disparoûtre

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. That I may please every body, is impossible.

That he may lead his pupil step by step to a perfect conduire pas à knowledge of the art of speaking and writing. That connoissance inf-1. inf-1. we may seduce by an enchanting style. That you

enchanteur 2. m. 1.
may not appear timid. That they may not increase

accroître

our sufferings.

IMPERFECT. That I might acknowledge the truth. That he might not displease by his haughtiness. That

we might conduct him to court. That you 2. le art. cour.
might know your real friends. That they might not

appear so scornful and vain.

dédaigneux

ON BRANCH IV. AND V.

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT. I wait his return with impatience.

N

death? We do not confine Does he fear craindre art. mort s astreinare
ourselves to those frivolous rules.

Do you confound 2. 1. confondre those notions one with another? Do they not pl-f. waste their time about trifles?

à (de) IMPERFECT. I was pitying those sad victims of the revolution.

Was he not biting his fingers?

f. Was he not biting his fingers?

morare frein m.

We did join our sighs and tears. Were you joindre soupin pl. larme pl. painting an historical subject? Double they throw peindre d'histoire 2 tableau répand Were you

répandre

the graces of expression into their speeches?

art. PRETERIT. I aimed at an honest end. Did he tendre à but. m. extinguish the fire of a disordered imagination? déréglé 2. we sell our incense to the pride of a blockhead? Did sot vendre encens you feign to think as a madman? Did they not feindre de en * come down at the first summons? descendre à ordre m.

FUTURE. Shall I hear the music of the new opera? entendre

Will he constrain the officers to join their respective respectif 2. Will you not new-compose that charming refundre They will assiduously correspond with their work? assidûment correspondre

friends. CONDITIONAL. Should I, by these means, gain the 1. atteindre à Would he wait with so much patience? desired end? tant de désiré 2. 1. Should we sell our liberty? Would you not confine yourself to such humane laws? They would dread the public's censure. craindre de art. f.

IMPERATIVE.

Expect not happiness from external objects; it is in

Let not thy melancholy paint every thing thee. mélancolie peindre 10%. Let us not descend to useless parin black. descendre dans (de) 2. dénoir Ye sovereigns, make the people happy ! ticulars. rendre Let them acknowledge so much goodness. répondre à

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. That I may fear that cloud of enemies. nuce f. That he may not answer such absurd criticism. répondre à un That we may confound the arts with the sciences. That the same end in view. you may have tendre à même

IMPERFECT. That I might not dissolve in tears. fondre he might draw a picture of distressed virtue. peindre malheureux 2.
we might affect such low sentiments. That feindre (de) 2.
you might hear their justif their justification. That they entendre for the opinion of sensible persons. sensé

CONJUGATION OF THE REFLECTED VERB Se Repentir.

INDICATIF.

Present. Je me repens, tu te repens, il se repent; nous nous repentons, vous vous repentez, ils se repentent.

Imperfett. Je me repentois, &c.

Pret. def. Je me repentis, &c.

Pret. ind. Je me suis repenti, or repentie: nous nous sommes repentis, or repenties.

Pret. ant. Je me fus repenti, or repentie, &cc. Plup. Je m'étois repenti, or repentie, &c.

Fut. abs. Je me repentirai, &c.

Fut. ant. Je me serai repenti, ar repentie, &c.

CONDITIONAL.

resent. Je me repentirois, &c.

Past. Je me serois repenti, or repentie, &c.

Past. Je me fusse repenti, or repentie, &c.

IMPERATIVE.

Repens-toi, qu'il se repente; repentons-nous, repentez-vous, qu'ils se repentent.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. Que je me repente, &c. Imperf. Que je me repentisse, &c.

Pret. Que je me sois repenti, or repentie, &c.

Plup. Que je me fusse repenti, or repentie, &c.

INFINITIVE.

Se repentir, s'être repenti, or repentie, se repentant, repenti, s'étant repenti, or repentie, devant se repen-

OBSERVATION. Reflected verbs are conjugated after the model which we give here, and according to the forms of the conjugation to which they belong. The compound tenses are conjugated with être, and the participle is put according to the gender and number, either in the masculine or feminine, in the singular or plural.

EXERCISE ON REFLECTED VERBS.

OBSERVATION I. Here we should recollect, that all reflected verbs are conjugated with two pronouns of the same person; that is, that je is always followed by me; tu by te; il, elle, ils, elles, by se; nous by nous; and vous by vous. In interrogative sentences, the pronoun subject is the only one that is put after the verb; and in those that are simply negative, ne is put between the two pronouns.

OBSERVATION II. Me, te, se, nous, vous, which are the regimen of reflected verbs, are sometimes regimen direct, as: Je me flatte, that is, je flatte moi; tu te blesseras, that is, tu blesseras toi, &c. and sometimes regimen indirect, as: Je me fais une loi, that is, je fais à moi une loi; il s'est fait honneur, that is,

il a fait honneur à soi, &c.

In the following exercises upon verbs, the tenses

will no longer be marked separately.

(137) mistaken. We shall walk se tromper se promener That I might be so grossly mistaken. this evening in the park.

se tromper

Se pro
Have I been mistaken? had not missed his way. Should I have misunderstood? se méprendre s'égarer One does not trifle with the public with impunity. Do se moquer de impunément not fools applaud themselves, even for their own sof s'applaudir folly? Do Do we not nurse ourselves too much? Withs'écouter sottise pl. out your care, would be ever have yielded to truth? se rendre soin pl. have you been walking long? I wish them long-temps queils Mesdames themselves early to work. to accustom de bonne heure à art. s'habituer sub.-1 Did Lucretia put herself to death? Will not those flowers se donner " la mort Can his happiness have so soon vanished? s'évanouir cond-2 se fletrir I had remembered my promise. We should be more se souwenir de promesse On happy, did we not love ourselves so much. (On the Imperative, see the model). O man! remember that thou art se rendre Rest yourselves under the shade of that oak. our actions. se reposer à

Let us give to ourselves an exact account of 2 compte m. 1 (But if the imperative sentence be with negation, the pronoun is placed before the verb, yet after ne. and toi is changed into te). Be thou never blind to thy own defects.

s'aveugler sur Let us not thus seduce ourselves. Let us not pride se séduire même s'enur-

ourselves on the gifts of fortune. bien pl. art.

oueillir de

CONJUGATION OF THE IMPERSONAL VERB Falloir.

INDICATIVE.

Present. Il faut. Imperfect. Il falloit. Preterit definite. il fallut. Preterit indefinite. Il a fallu.

Prétérit anterior. Il eut fallu. Pluperfeët. Il avoit fallu. Future absolute. Il faudra. Future anterior. Il aura fallu.

CONDITIONAL.

Present. Il faudroit. Past. Il avoit fallu.

Present, or future. Qu'il faille. Imperfect. Qu'il fallût. Preterit. Qu'il ait fallu. Pluperfect. Qu'il eût fallu.

INDÍCATIVE.

Present. Falloir.

Participle present. 0

Participle past. Ayant fallu.

OBSERVATION. Il denotes an impersonal verb, only when we cannot put a noun in its stead; for, when, speaking of a child, we say, il joue: this is not an impersonal, because, in the room of the word il, we may put l'enfant, and say: l'enfant joue.

EXERCISE ON THE IMPERSONAL VERES.

Does it rain this morning? Has it hailed last, pleuvoir matin greler art. 2 It does not snow. I believe it thunders. night? neiger croive que tonner
he fall? That is ten years ago. Must falloir ind-7 que succomber de cela-4 il y avoir1 dix-2 It is a remarkable thing. It is ten o'clock. There are I! heures 1 few real talents. It was peu de vrai tenir not my friend's fault that tenir à was not so. Will it freeze long? It is la chose ind-3 ainsi faire reler horribly cold. It happened as they feared horriblement froid arriver ind-3 ce que on ind-2 as they feared. It is fit to act so. It was of great importance to succeed. convenir de agir . A importer beaucoup ind-2 de réussir Would it be proper to write to Paris? It appears that être à propos de paroine Perhaps it to that business. he has not attended s'occuper ind-4 de

would be better to give up the undertaking. It valoir micus was sufficient to know his opinion. There was sufficiently de yesterday, a council of war, hier conseil

IRREGULAR VERBS

TRANSCOUNT DRAS

Of the First Conjugation.

Aller, to go, is irregular in the present of the indicative, in the following terminations: je vais, or je vas (seldom used), tu vas, il va, ils vont: in the future, j'irai, tu iras, &c: and in the present of the conditional: j'irois, tu irois, &c: in the imperative, in these three terminations: va, qu'il aille, qu'ils aillent: and in the present of the subjunctive, in these four: que j'aille, que tu ailles, qu'il aille, qu'ils aillent, The indicative of this verb has two preterits definite, the one regular: j'allai, tu allas, &c. and the other irregular borrowed through custom from the verb être: je fus, tu fus, &c. the same in the imperfect of the subjunctive.

S'en aller, to go away, is conjugated like aller, except in the imperative, where en is shifted after the verb, in the following three forms: va-t-en, allons-

nous-en, allez-vous-en.

Puer, to stink, defective, it is only used in the infinitive, the present, imperfect and future of the indicative, and the present of the conditional. Formerly they wrote: je pus, tu pus, il put; but the present custom has corrected that abuse, and we write: je pue, tu pues, il pue. Academy.

In the verbs in over and ayer, the y is changed into i in the following terminations, viz: in the indicative: j'empleie, I employ, tu emploies, il emploie, ils emploient; j'essaie, I try, tu essaies, &c. In the imperative: emploie, qu'il emploie, qu'ils emploient; essaie, &c. In the present of the subjunctive: que j'emploie, que tu emploies, qu'il emploie, qu'ils emploient; que j'essaie, &c.

OBSERVATION. In the first and second persons plural of the imperfect of the indicative, these verbs make: nous employions, vous essayiez, &c. but we

should, as much as possible, avoid making use of those forms, on account of their harshness.

Envoyer, to send, and renvoyer, to send back, make the future of the indicative, and present of the

conditional: j'enverrai, &c. j'enverrois, &c.

In the verbs in ger, the c is never omitted in any tense, that the g may preserve the same soft pronunciation: juger, to judge, jugeant, jugeons: and in those ending in cer, we put, for the same reason this mark (3) which we call cédille, under the c when followed by a or o, suçer, to suck, suçant, suçons.

Observation. In the verbs of this conjugation, the second person singular of the imperative takes s after e, when the relative pronouns y and en are to follow, as: portes-en à ton frère, carry some to your brother; apportes-y des livres, carry some books thither. The imperative va follows another rule; it takes a t, when followed by en, as: va-t-en, begone, and an s, when followed by y, as: vas-y, go thither: but it takes no s, when y is followed by a verb, as: va y donner ordre, go and order that matter.

EXERCISE.

Will you go this evening into the country? Perhaps I aller aller to pay some visits, and if I be any owners to pay some visits, and if I be any owners to pay some visits, and if I be any owners to pay some visits, and if I be aller the part of th

judge of intentions. Did they not neglect their juger is art.

friends? They threatened with their anger. The bees abeille

were there sucking up the cups of the flowers. Why
y succer cancer of the flowers.

do they go away so soon?

s'en aller

vesterday to Windsor.

My brother and sister went

I shall not go any more a à art.

hunting.

IRREGULAR VERBS

Of the Second Conjugation.

BRANCH I. Bénir, to bless, participle past, bénit, kénite, when speaking of things consecrated by the prayers of the church; otherwise, it is always béni, bénie. We say: du pain bénit, hallowed bread; de l'eau bénite, holy water; but we ought to say: bénie entre toutes les femmes, blessed among all women.

Fleurir, meaning to blossom, is regular; but when used in a figurative sense, that is meaning to flourish, the participle present makes florissant, and the third persons of the imperfect of the indicative make floris-

soit, florissoient.

Hair, to hate; present of the indicative, je hais; tu hais, il hait,; second person singular of the imperative, hais. Ai in these four persons is pronounced as a vowel, having the sound of è grave open; je hès,

tu hès, il hèt.

BRANCH. II. Bouillir, to boil; indicative, je bous, tu bous, il bout: future, je bouillirai: present of the conditional, je bouillirois: imperative, bous. Ebouillir, to over-boil, and rebouillir, to boil again, are

conjugated like bouillir.

Courir, to run; infinitive, couru: indicative, je cours, tu cours, il court: preterit, je courus &c.: future, je courrai, &c. both rr being distinctly pronounced: conditional present, je courrois, &c.; imperative, cours: subjunctive, que je courusse, &c. N. B. We also say: courre le cerf, to hunt a stag. In the same manner are conjugated accourir, to run to; concourir, to concur; discourir, to discourse; encourir, to incur; parcourir, to run over, to survey; recourir, to have recourse to; secourir to assist.

Faillir, to fail; defective in some tenses and obsolete in others, is only used in the participle past failli, in the preterit definite, je faillis, and in the compound

tenses. The same may be said of défaillir, to faint. Some grammarians say faillant, défaillant. It is also the opinion of the Academy.

Fuir, to flee, to run away; infinitive, fuyant: indicative, je fuis, nous fuyons, vous fuyoz, ils fuient; je fuyois, &c. je fuis, &c.: imperative, fuyous, fuyez: subjunctive, que je fuie, &c., que je fuisse, &c.

Mourir, to die; infinitive, mort: indicative, je meurs, tu meurs, il meurt, ils meurent ; je mourus, &c.; je mourrai, &c.: conditional, je mourrois, &c; imperative, meurs, qu'il meure; subjunctive, que je meure, que tu meures, qu'il meure, qu'ils meurent; que je mou-

russe, &c.

Aequérir, to acquire; infinitive, acquis: indicative, j'acquiers, tu acquiers, il acquiert, ils acquièrent; j'acquis, &c, ; j'acquerrai, &c: conditional, j'acquerrois, &c.; imperative, acquiers, qu'il acquière, qu'ils acquièrent: subjunctive, que j'acquière, &c.; que j'acquisse, &c.

Conquérir, to conquer; infinitive, conquis: indicative, preterit definite, je conquis, &c; subjunctive, imperfect, que je conquisse, &c. This verb, which is conjugated like aequérir, is almost obsolete in the other simple tenses, but very much used in the com-

pound tenses.

Ouir, to hear; defective or obsolete, except in the participle oui, in the preterit definite of the indicative, j'ouis, and the imperfect of the subjunctive, que j'ouisse. It is used in the compound tenses, but then it is generally accompanied by a verb: je l'ai, or je l'avois eui dire, I have, or I had heard it so. It is conjugated with avsir.

Quérir, to fetch, is used in this form only, and after the verbs envoyer, venir, aller: envoyez querir, send

for; allez querir, go and fetch.

Vetir, to clothe; infinitive, vetu: obsolete in the present of the indicative. The verbs dévêtir, to divest; revêtir, to invest; and survêtir, to put on clothes over others, are conjugated in the same manner, and are used in the present of the indicative.

OBSERVATION. Sortir, to go out, ressortir, to go out again, and repartir, to reply, or to set off again, are conjugated like sentir: but sortir, to obtain, to have, a law term; ressortir, to resort; and repartir, to share, are conjugated like finir. Sortir, in the latter sense, is not used in all its tenses.

BRANCH III. Cueillir, to gather; infinitive, eueilli: indicative, je cueille, je cueillis, je cueillerai: conditional, je cueillerais. Accueillir, to make welcome, and recueillir, to collect, are conjugated in the same manner.

Saillir, to project, is seldom used, except in the two participles saillant and sailli, and in the third person of the present of the indicative: cette corniche saille trop, that cornice projects too far. It is also used sometimes in the future and conditional. But saillir, to gush out, is conjugated like finir. It is only used in the participle past, sailli, and in the third persons of some tenses: les eaux saillissent, the waters gush out. Nevertheless the Academy gives all its tenses.

Assaillir, to assault; infinitive, assailli: indicative, present, j'assaille, tu assailles, il assaille: future, j'assaillirai: conditional, j'assaillirois.

Tressaillir, to start, has the persons singular of the present tense: je tressaille, tu tressailles, il tressaille. These two verbs are oftener used in the present of the infinitive and the participle past, than in the other forms.

Branch IV. There are no irregulars in this branch. The conjugation of tenir serves as a model for all its compounds, and the same may be said of venir, but with this difference, that tenir and all its derivatives, are conjugated with avoir, in the compound tenses, whereas venir and its derivatives, except contrevenir and subvenir, take the auxiliary verb etre, in the same tenses.

EXERCISE.

The arts and sciences flourished at Athens in the time of Pericles. The empire of the Babylonians flourished

pretty long. Does she sincerely hate that vain point and all assez

the paraphernalia of grandeur? By so whimsical a appareil art.

conduct, should we not concur to our destruction? May concourir perte That I should acquire he die in the peace of the Lord! riches at the expence of my honesty.

à dépens pl. probité Sesostris, king (de) of Egypt, conquered a great part of Asia. I have heard ind-3 ouir dire We ran, at the voice of that honest man, that news. accourir à The formidable empire which Alexander and assisted him. secourir 2. le 1 longer than his life. had conquered, did not last durergather, in the Ancient History, some important and valuable Were we not overtaken by a horrible storm? facts. fait pl. 1 assaillir Would he not avoid flatterers, if he knew all their falseind-2 hood ? He was like to lose his life in that ren-

IRREGULAR VERBS

après de chimère pl.

faillir ind-4 * * art. Will men always run after chimeras?

Of the Third Conjugation.

Avoir, to have, of which we have given the conjugation.

Choir, to fall; defective, and hardly ever used but in this form: ils'est laissé choir, he let himself fall.

Déchoir, to decay: the infinitive has only déchoir, and participle past déchu: indicative, je déchois, nous déchoyons, ils déchoient: no imperfect: je déchus; je décherrai; conditional, je décherrois: subjunctive,

que je déchoic, que je déchusse.

Echoir, to fall; infinitive, échéant, échu; without either first or second person in the present, where the third now makes il échoit, which is sometimes pronounced il échet, ils échéent; no imperfect: j'échus, j'écherrai: conditional, j'écherrois: subjunctive, que j'échoie, que j'échusse. In general it is only used in the third persons of the singular.

Falloir, must, impersonal, of which we have given

the conjugation.

seté f.

counter.

Mouvoir, to move; infinitive, mu; indicative,

je meus, tu meus, il meut, ils meuvent : je mus; je mouvrai: conditional, je mouvrois: imperative, meus, qu'il meuve : subjunctive, que je meuve; que je musse.

Pleuvoir, to rain, impersonal: infinitive, plu: indicative, il pleut; il plut: subjunctive, qu'il plut.

Pouvoir, to be able; infinitive, pu: indicative, je puis, or je peux (seldom used), tu peux, il peut, ils peuvent; je pus, je pourrai : conditional, je pourrois: subjunctive, que je puisse, que je pusse.

Savoir, to know; infinitive, sachant, su: indicative, je sais, tu sais, il sait; je sus; je saurai: con-ditional, je saurois: imperative, sache, qu'il sache, sachens, sachez, qu'ils sachent : subjunctive, que je

sache; que je susse.

Seoir, to become, to befit, is seldom used but in the third persons of the simple tenses: il sied, ils sièent, il séioit, il sièra, il sièroit, qu'il sièe. It is without participle past in the infinitive, and consequently without compound tenses: also without preterit in the indicative, and without imperfect in the subjunctive. But seoir, to sit, is used only in these two forms: seoir and séant; nevertheless, we sometimes find il sied.

S'asseoir, to sit down; as used now, infinitive, s'asseyant, assis: indicative, je m'assieds, nous nous asseyons, vous vous asseyez, ils s'asseyent; je m'asseyois: je m'assis; je m'assiérai, or je m'asseyerai: conditional, je m'assiérois, or je m'asseyerois: imperative. assieds-toi, qu'il s'asseye, asseyons-nous, asseyez-vous: subjunctive, que je m'assisse, que tu t'assisses, qu'il s'assit, qu'ils s'assissent. According to some grammarians, there is neither first nor second person plural of these tenses. Asscoir, to sit, to settle, rasscoir, to sit again, to compose, and se rasscoir, to sit down again, are conjugated in the same manner. The Academy does not mention any other way of conjugating this verb.

Voir, to see; infinitive, voyant, vu: indicative, nous voyons, vous voyez; je voyois; je vis: je verrai: conditional, je verrois: subjunctive, que je voie, que tu voies, que nous voyions; que je visse. Entrevoir, to have a glimpse of, and revoir, to see again, are conjugated in the same manner: but prévoir, to foresee, has je prévoirai, je prévoirois; surscoir, to supersede, sursis, je surscoirai, je surscoirois; the rest like voir.

Valoir, to be worth; infinitive, valu: indicative, je vaux, tu vaux, il vaut; je vaudrai: conditional, je vaudrois: imperative, vaux, qu'il vaille: subjunctive, que je vaille, que tu vailles, qu'il vaille, qu'ils vaillent. Prévaloir, to prevail, is conjugated in the same manner, except that the present of the subjunctive is regular: que je prévale, &c.

Pourvoir, to provide; infinitive, pourvoyant, pourvu: indicative, je pourvoyois, je pourvoirai: conditional, je pourvoirois: subjunctive, que je pourvoie, &c.

Vouloir, to be willing; infinitive, voulu: indicative, je veux, tu veux, il veut, ils veulent; je voudrai: conditional, je voudrois: imperative, veux, qu'il veuille: subjunctive, que je veuille, que tu veuilles, qu'il veuille, qu'ils veuillent.

EXERCISE.

I shall sit down on the top of that hill, whence s'asseoir sommet côteau d'où

I shall see a prospect as magnificent as varied. I can scène f. aussi magnifique que varié pouvoir and will tell the truth. Does he know that deplorable vouloir savoir

eatastrophe? Should this book be good for nothing?

ne valoir rien

Do you think I would deceive him? Doubt

que voulor subj-1. tromper 2 le 1

not that reason and truth will prevail at last.

que * prévaloir subj-1 à la longue
It rained all day yesterday. Let them know
pleuvoir ind-3 * savoir
that their grace depends upon their submission. This new

fashion becomes young persons admirably well. The

heavenly bodies are moved by the action of two opposite ecleste se mouvoir deux opposé

forces. Has he, at least, seen again with pleasure,

du moins revoir ind-4

his country and his friends! Has that land fallen

patric f.
to your father's lot? See the admirable order of the

universe: does it not announce a supreme architect? Shall

two always see the triumph of the wicked? Had he had a

glimpse of the dawn of this fine day? We were surreveir ind-4 aurore ind-6 seated on the banks of the Thames, whence we were conbord pl. Tamise f. con-

templating those myriads of vessels which bring templer ind-2 millier.pl. vaisscau qui apporter every year the riches of the two hemispheres. My father will provide for every thing.

u provide for every thing.

IRREGULAR VERES

Of the Fourth Conjugation.

BRANCH I. Braire, to bray; defective, being only used in the third persons of the present and future of the indicative: il brait, ils braicnt, il braira, ils

brairont, and in the conditional, il brairoit.

Faire, to do, or make; infinitive, faisant, fait: indicative, je fais, nous faisons, vous faites, ils font: je faisois; je fis; je ferai: conditional, je ferois: imperative, fais, qu'il fasse, faisons, fuites: sub-

junctive, que je fasse, que je fisse.

In the same manner are conjugated contrefaire, to counterfeit, défaire, to undo, redéfaire, to undo again, refaire, to do again, satisfaire, to satisfy, and surfaire, to exact, to ask too much. These four, viz; forfaire, to trespass, malfaire, to do ill, méfaire, to misdo, and parfaire, to perfect, are only used in the infinitive and participle past, forfait, malfait, méfait, and parfait.

Traire, to milk, defective; infinitive, trayant, trait: indicative, je trais, nous trayons, ils traient, je trayois; no preterit definite; je trairai: conditional, je trairois: imperative, trais, qu'il traie, trayons, trayez: subjunctive, que je traie; no imperfect.

BRANCH II. Naître, to be born; infinitive, naissant, né: indicative, je nais, nous naissons; je naissois; je naitrai: conditional, je naitrois: imperative, nais, qu'il naisse, naissons: subjunctive, que je naisse; que je naquisse. Renaître, to be born again, is conjugated in the same manner.

Paître, to graze, and repaître, to feed, are regular,

O 2

but defective, having neither preterit definite of the indicative, nor imperfect of the subjunctive. The future and conditional are never used, their pronunciation being disagreeable and ungrateful to the ear. In the compound tenses, they are only used in this familiar phrase: il a pu et repu.

Branch III. Bruire, to rustle; defective, being only used in the participle present: bruyant, which is oftener used as a mere adjective: des flots bruyants, and in the third persons of the imperfect of the indi-

cative: il brugoit, ils brugoient.

Luire and reluire, to shine, are irregular in the participle past: lui, relui, and defective in the preterit definite of the indicative, and the imperfect of the subjunctive.

Nuire, to hurt, irregular, only in the participle

past: nui.

Circoncire, to circumcise, irregular only in the participle past, circoncis, in the preterit definite of the indicative, je circoncis, and in the imperfect of the subjunctive; que je circoncisse. According to some grammarians, this verb has neither participle present in the infinitive, nor imperfect of the indicative: but the greatest number are for those forms, which, however, are little harmonious, and therefore, taste ought to proscribe them. The Academy does not mention them, from which we may suppose that they are altogether wanting.

Confire, to pickle; infinitive, confisant, confit: indicative, je confis; je confisois; je confis: subjunctive, que je confisse. Suffire, to suffice, is conjugated in

the same manner.

Dire, to say, is irregular only in the second person plural of the present of the indicative: vous dites, in the preterit definite, je dis, and in the imperfect of the subjunctive, que je disse. Conjugate redire, to say again, in the same manner. Also the other compounds of dire, vin. dédire, to unsay; contredire, to contradict; interdire, to forbid; médire, to slander; and prédire, to foretel, except that the second person plural of the present of the indicative is regular: vous dédisez, contredisez. &c. Mandire, to curse,

varies in the following forms; maudissant, nous maudissons, vous maudissez, ils maudissent; je maudissois.

Ecrire, to write; infinitive, ¿crivant: indicative, nous écrivons, vous écrivez, ils écrivent; j'écrivois; j'écrivis: imperative, qu'il écrive, écrivons, écrivez: subjunctive, que j'écrive, &c. que j'écrivisse, &c. Circonserire, to circumscribe, décrire, to describe, and the other compounds, are conjugated in the same manner.

Frire, to fry; defective, having only that form, and the following: frit; je fris, tu fris, il frit; je frirai, &.c. je frirois, &c. To supply the deficiency of the other forms, we make use of the verb faire, and the infinitive frire.

Lire, to read! infinitive, lisant, lu: indicative, je lis; je lisois; je lus: subjunctive, que je lise, que je lusse. The same irregularities are found in relire, to

read over again, and ¿lire, to elect.

Rire, to hugh; infinitive, riant, ri: indicative, nous rions, vous riez, ils rient; je riois; je ris: imperative, qu'il rie, rions, riez: subjunctive, que je rie; que je risse. Sourire, to smile, is conjugated in the same manner.

Boire, to drink; infinitive, buvant, bu: indicative, je bois, nous buvons, vous buvoz, ils boivent; je buvois, je bus: imperative, bois, qu'il boive, buvons, buvoz: subjunctive, que je boive, que nous buvions, que vous buvioz; que je busse. The same for reboire,

to drink again.

Clorre, to close; defective: infinitive, no participle present, clos: indicative, je clos, tu clos, il clot, no plural in this tense; no imperfect, and no preterit definite: je clorrai; conditional, je clorrais. Neither the imperative nor the subjunctive are used; though we might very well say: clos ce parc, shut up that park; qu'il close ce jardin, let him shut up that garden; il veut que je close cette prairie, he would have me enclose this meadow. This verb is used in all its compound tenses. Enclorre, to enclose, and renclorre, to enclose again, have the same irregularities.

Eclorre, to be hatched, to blow like a flower, de-

fective: infinitive, éclos, only: indicative, without either first or second person, il éclot, ils éclosent: neither imperfect nor preterit definite; il éclorra, ils éclorront: conditional, il éclorroit, ils éclorroient: subjunctive, qu'il éclose. The participle is construed with être.

Conclure, to conclude; infinitive, concluant, conclu: indicative, je conclus, nous concluons, vous concluez, ils concluent; je concluois; je conclus: imperative, qu'il conclue, concluons, concluez: subjunctive, que je conclue, que je conclusse.

Exclure, to exclude, is conjugated like conclure,

except that the participle past is exclu, or exclus.

Croire, to believe; infinitive, croyant, cru: indivative, je crois, nous croyons, vous croyez, ils croient; je croyois; je crus; imperative, qu'il croie, croyons, eroyez: subjunctive, que je croie; que je crusse.

EXERCISE.

Why do you play the fool? Will he never leave off his contrefaire insensé se défaire de habits? Scated under the shade of palm-trees, bad à ombre mauvais habitude pl. they were milking their goats and ewes, and merrily traire ind-2 chèvre brebis drinking that nestar which was renewed every day. boire ind-2 m. qui se renouveller ind-2
It is time for him to make serious reflections upon his que il faire subj-1 (de) sérieur pl. f.
conduct. Was not Virgil born at Maníua: He would naitreind-3 à Mantone have been the most wretched of men, had he ever malheureux art. cond-3 any body. Always speak truth, but with dismjured nuire cond-3 à personne dire art. cretion. Never contradict any body in public. Write every nagement contredire day the reflections which you make upon the books you are que reading. Did he not read that interesting story with a lire ind-3

have resolved to go on. Shall you enclose your park

résondre ind-4 de enclore

with a wall or a hedge? The silk-worms are hatched

de muraillef. haief. ver à soie éclorre

rire ind-4 de bon eœur

great deal of pleasure? We have laughed heartily

very early this year. Let us believe the truth of the Christian 2 année 1 croire à chrétien 2 religion.

f. 1

Branch IV. All verbs in aindre, eindre and oindre, are conjugated like plaindre; therefore, there are

no irregular verbs in this branch.

BRANCH V. Absoudre, to absolve, defective; infinitive, absolvant, absolvs; indicative, j'absolvs, nous absolvens, vous absolvez, ils absolvent; j'absolvois; no preterit definite: j'absolvai: conditional, j'absolvais: imperative, qu'il absolve, absolvons, &c. subjunctive, que j'absolve; no imperfect. The feminine of the participle past is absolve.

Résondre, to resolve, is conjugated like absoudre; but it is used in all its tenses. The preterit definite is, je résolus, and the imperfect of the subjunctive, que je résolusse. It has two participles, viz. résolu when it means decided; and résous, when it means reduced into:

in this last sense it has no feminine.

Condre, to sew; infinitive, cousant, cousu: indicative, nous cousons, vous cousez, ils cousent; je cousois; je cousis: impetative, qu'il couse, cousons, &c. subjunctive, que je couse; que je cousisse. Conjugate in the same manner, découdre, to unsew, and recoudre, to sew over again.

Mettre, to put; infinitive, mettant, mis: indicative, je mets, tu mets, il met; je mis: imperative, mets: subjunctive, que je misse. Its compounds, admettre, to admit, commettre, to commit, &c. are con-

jugated in the same manner.

Moudre, to grind; infinitive, moulant, moulu: indicative, je mouds, nous moulons, vous moulez, ils moulent; je moulois; je moulus: imperative, mouds, qu'il moule, moulons, &c. subjunctive, que je moule, que je moulusse. In the same manner are conjugated, émoudre, to grind (knives, &c.), and remoudre, to grind again.

Prendre, to take; infinitive, prenant, pris: indicative, nous prenons, vous prenez, ils prennent; je prenois; je pris: impetative, qu'il prenne, prenons, &c. subjunctive, que je prenne, que nous prenions, que

vous preniez, qu'ils prennent; que je prisse. All its compounds, apprendre, to learn, comprendre, to understand, &c. are conjugated in the like manner.

Rompre, to break; infinitive, rompant, rompu:

indicative, je romps, il rompt, &c.

Suivre, to follow; infinitive, suivant, suivi; indicative, je suis, nous suivons; je suivois; je suivis; imperative, suis, qu'il suive, suivons, &c. subjunctive, que je suive, que je suivisse. Conjugate in the same manner s'ensuivre, to follow, to ensue; and

poursuivre, to pursue.

Vaincre, to conquer; infinitive, vainquant, vaineu: indicative, je vaincs, nous vainquous, vous vainquez, ils vainquent; je vainquois; je vainquis; imperative, qu'il vainque, vainquous, &c. subjunctive, que je vainque; que je vainquisse. Convaincre, to convince, is conjugated like vaincre. These two verbs are irregular, only because the e is changed into qu, before a, e, i, o.

Battre, to beat, is irregular only in the three persons singular of the present of the indicative : je bats,

tu bats, il bat.

Etre, to be, which has already been conjugated

through.

Vivre, to live; infinitive, vivant, vécu: indicative, je vis, nous vivons; je vécus; imperative, vis, qu'il vive, vivons, &c.: subjunctive, que je vive; que je vécusse.

EXERCISE.

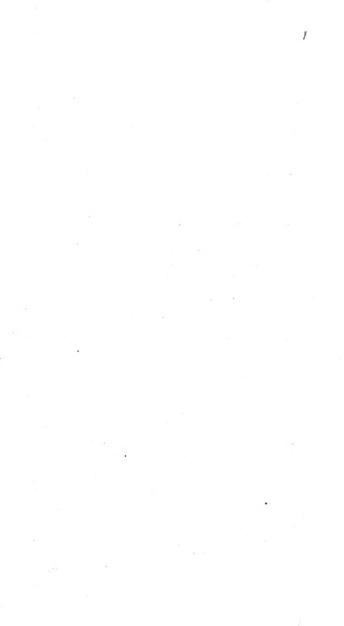
Did they not conclude from that luminous conclure ind-3 argument the most absurd consequence? Could that judge rarsonnement 1 2 thus lightly absolve the gailty? My daughter was si absolute cond-1 coupable pl. sewing all day yesterday. Does he set a great condre ind-3 journée 2 1 mettre value upon riches? I never admitted those principles.

a admettre ind-3

Has he committed that fault? I wish you may take

Has he committed that fault? I wish you may take commettre ind-4 que frendre subj-1 courage. I took great pains, but at last I ground

ind-3 beaucoup de s. mondre ind-3



(To face page 153.) A TABLE of the Pumitive Tenses of the French Verbs, either Regular et Irregular. * Denotes, that the Tense is that teldow uted. O Browns, either that the Tense is bother, or in altogether wanting.

FIRST CONJUGATION

arreas, parat con attes, respulse pure, regular but defection	alteret allant punnt	Nine alle	TEME TO VALL TO PAIN TAKEN MENT	Pallin A
S E C	OND	TTADULTOS	0.5	
with parking of the fed has a host, regular term, partle of the partle o	tratissery has cont evenes; touslant courant tailinn' luvant mourant of purtant o vicint' sevitant ovivant courilari	First	Defice perhaps and a second of the second of	n needs n and n allo n allo n allo
texts, pared of the facilities to	112721	T 1 Y U	18 11154	1.1154

1 11	iiab c	0 () 0 0 1 1 1	1. 11	
an ruma, poradigha	BILLSANT	a r Co	241	at sager
AND DESCRIPT	ayant	eu .	7 41	41
About there are that defective	0	thu, antiem nin		
dechair, tire ular and def. tive	0	d-chu	je d chort	in Porba-
echous michige	is to and	• hu	A colores	i Archini
tallors, resignar and life have	ø	1 d lu	s. That	of Balling
mousion, in palar	mouvant	mu	je Birtis	ir fride
pleason, receive	pleutant	pla	il plrut	at glut
pouroit, irregular	pout 361	pa	J. Pull	10 1000
Savoit, reregular	sachant	±10	3- 42	J+ 23
Curs conversable, in M. defects	serant	0	al sied, ils ment	0
sonn Une convenable, ie & defect.	scant	41 *	il sied •	٥.
Cascent, erretulae	s'assevant	21115	je mia ore is	to militaria
Void, erregular	Nonant	10	je to, caje to a	15 313
prevou, receptie	prevoyant	piera	Je protos	ar parets
suriding, griefeie!		SURSID	je surrevis	Je kar is
Sulma, pregular	* alant	salo	3. ATTR	je valus je prévatus
prevalent, serre or	e re valant	précala	te bicrana	ie bostana
pourviet, respular	time to contract	poursu	je pourcus	ie hostinas
Contract extended	soulant	coulu	le renx	je voulus

Touton, milana				
FOL	RTH	CONJUGAT		
#1417", parad of the first fram \$	PERSONNE	¥1.11	28 41 415	31 PLC 9
brane, receptar and refe tive	0	U	at trait, its braicest	٥.
lanc, eregular	favant	fait	je lais	je hi
toglians, seegules and left tens	0	malfart	0	0
Soffance, respective soft of these	o	forfact	0	U
trant, receptor and life tree	travant	trait	femil	0
sistematics, parad of their red have "	PARCISSINT	1490	28 8987 *	28 7451 5
traine, negular	Balssatif	Tic	(C. Nach	je naquis
parts of tequities one and defects	paissant		to bear	a
s name, parad of the chief four A	REDEISSNE	5 1 D 1 LT	21 01 27 15	P + D415.
brune, seren er ant dife tive	brugant	G .	0	4.1
lone, recessive and depoters	Longot	Ins	re fair	er er
hone, propolar	nussant	tisa ,	to 1 little	90 MU114
encounte, macular	* or 0	EHRODICIS	JC + IFE ORCES	Je circoncu
Lonbur, orregular	confronts	confit	at coults	ge courts
	disant	dif	pr his	.e.si
date, pregular	dedisant	eledet	et dipotra	10 obober
magnine, respective	mondosant	negdit	pe mouto	to a code a
ecure, progetar	4 co 3 3 b 5	rent	Section 1	3 5 1001 -
lear, reegular and defe to er	0	fut	retus, plan	10
line, reeguar and agricult	Long	to.	pe for	je lus
lite, serigidar	E-463	n	(0.11)	er or
tine, reregular	busant	for	ge for in	p. 1 u s
clust, require made the	U.	(109	ie clin	0
Clust, negative and not tel	e e	ex los	tion for	U
eclote, recessar introducers	conclusut	conclit	tr as in the	procumber
conclute, recyanic	sacius!!	tacto, on exclus	, ex fur	planeter.
esclure, serreune	covent	CD4	p ct no	je crus
ctotic, irregular	LAST SAST		27 7 3 44 98	44.4541.455
ensinger, parelt of the tel in to A	BINDINI	PINDS	an achte	21 871 911
ne store, parad, of 15 pyr6 oranis		0	0	ė.
Soudre, Jef etter	a sections.	abacu , abroute f.	("al' your	0
at outre, magazar and asfective	2.401.2111	I molu decide /	1	
ec-oudec, orrigalar	Truck Ant	I mous reduct sans) ic tesuits	je teaula.
distribute, reegy to and defects a	d sools ant	d. sous	gr itin 698	0
Louds, errowler	consist	CUUNA	ar could-	p countr
matte, oregular	pressant	District	te mirts	t- cur-
montre, reegaler	niculant	mosiu	ti moud:	je i i salo.
proniet, respect	territant.	Elia.	pe provide	ge per-
promite, respective	Land sect	tempa	je nampi) tomp
tomfatt metara	1903-003	39/31	Se all	J 415 iv
wants, or gular	A vincuint	Vinsed	re tarries	le renders
tamere, or year	battant	tutte	ic pats	ge tatios
harne, prequest	ctaut	ete	te suis	je tus
cue, an other	b. Lett	10.11	15 335	75 11-45

all the coffee. In the middle of the road, the axle-tree of a milien route essien our carriage breaks down. For a long time we followed carrosse se rompre we suivre ind-3 that method, which was only fit to mislead qui ne ind-2 que 2 propre 1 à 3 égarer 5 us. What is the consequence? The Greeks vanquished nous 4 que s'ensuivre Gree pl. vaincre ind-3 the Persians at Marathon, Salamis, Platea and Mycale.

It is during winter that they thrash the corn in cold ce pendant art. que on butte bled art. froid 2 countries. Happy those who live in solitude! Has he lived pags qui s. art. retraite f. long? Long live that good king!

OF THE FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

que 1 4 subj-13

Tenses are either simple, or compound. Simple tenses are those which do not borrow the tenses of the verbs avoir or etre: compound tenses are those which are formed of the tenses of avoir, or etre, and the participle past of a verb. Among the simple tenses, there are five which are called primitive, because they serve to form the other tenses in the four conjugations. These are: the present and preterit of the indicative, and the present, participle present and participle past of the infinitive.

From the present of the indicative we form the second person singular of the imperative, by merely omitting je:j'aime, I love; imperative, aime, love thou. We only except these four verbs, viz: in the first conjugation; je vais, imperative, va. In the third conjugation; j'ai, je sais; imperative, aie, sache. In the fourth conjugation, branch V; je suis, imperative, sois.

From the preterit definite, we form the imperfect of the subjunctive, by changing ai into asse, for the first conjugation, and by adding se to the other terminations of the preterit definitive, as: j'aimai, j'aimasse; je finis, je finisse; je tins, je tinsse; je regus,

je reçusse.

From the present of the infinitive, we form the future of the indicative and present of the conditional, by changing r or re into rai, for the future, and into rois, for the conditional, as: aimer, j'aimerai, j'aimerois; rendre, je rendrai, je rendrois.

EXCEPTIONS. In the first conjugation, aller makes j'irai, j'irois, and envoyer, j'enverrai, j'en-

verrois: renvoyer has the same irregularity.

In the second conjugation, branch II, courir makes je courrai, je courrois; mourir, je mourrai, je mourrois; acquérir, j'acquerrai, j'acquerrois; conquérir, je conquerrai, je conquerrois, though but seldom used in these tenses. Branch III, cueillir makes je cueillerai, je cueillerois. Branch IV, tenir and venir, with their compounds, make je tiendrai, je tiendrois;

e viendrai, je viendrois.

In the 3d conjugation, avoir makes j'aurai, j'aurois; recevoir, je recevrai, je recevrois; échoir, j'écherrai, j'écherrois; déchoir, the same; falloir, il faudra, il faudroit; pouvoir, je pourrai, je pourrois; savoir, je saurai, je saurois. S'asseoir, je m'assiérai, or je m'asseyerai; je m'assiérois, or je m'asseyerois. Voir, je verrai, je verrois; same irregularity in its compounds, except pourvoir and prévoir, which form their tenses regularly. Pleuvoir, il pleuvra, il pleuvroit; valoir, je vaudrai, je vaudrois; vouloir, je voudrai, je voudrai, je voudrois.

In the 4th conjugation, branch I, faire makes je ferai, je ferois. Branch V, être makes je serai, je

serois.

OBSERVATION. Some grammarians form the present of the conditional from the future of the indicative. In this case, there are no exceptions.

From the participle present, we form:

to. The imperfect of the indicative, by changing ant into ois, as: aimant, j'aimois; recevant, je recevois. Except in the third conjugation, ayant and

sachant, which make j'avois, je savois.

2°. The three persons plural of the present of the indicative, by changing ant into ons, ez, ent, as: aimant, nous aimons. vous aimez, ils aiment. Except in the third conjugation, ayant and sachant, which make nous avons, vous avez, ils out; nous savons, vous savez, ils out; nous savons, vous savez, ils out; nous savons,

branch I, faisant, and its compounds, which make vous faites, ils font: branch II, disant, and its compound redisant, which make vous dites, vous redites: branch V, étant, nous sommes, vous étes, ils sont.

The first and second persons plural of the imperative, are the same as the first and second persons plural of the present of the indicative, and, of course,

have the same formation.

3°. The present of the subjunctive, by changing ant, according to the person and number, into e, es, e, ions, iez, ent, as: aimant, que j'aime, que tu aimes, qu'il aime, que nous aimions, que vous aimiez, qu'ils aiment.

EXCEPTIONS. In the first conjugation, allant, que j'aille, que tu ailles, qu'il aille, qu'ils aillent. In the second conjugation, we except all the verbs in branch IV: tenant, venant, and their compounds: que je tienne, que tu tiennes, qu'il tienne, qu'ils tiennent; que je vienne, &c. The first and second persons

plural are formed regularly.

In the third conjugation, we except the verbs in evoir, as: recevant, que je reçoive, que tu reçoives, qu'il reçoive, qu'ils reçoivent; pouvant, que je puisse, que tu puisses, qu'il puisse, que nous puissions, que vous puissiez, qu'ils puissent; valant, que je vaille, que tu vailles, qu'ils vaillent; voulant, que je veuille, que tu veuilles, qu'il veuille, qu'ils veuillent; mouvant, que je meuve, que tu meuves, qu'il meuve, qu'ils meuvent. Falloir, without participle present, qu'il faille.

In the fourth conjugation, branch I, faisant, que je fasse, que tu fasses, qu'il fasse, que nous fassions, que vous fassicz, qu'ils fassent: branch II, buvant, que je boive, que tu boives, qu'il boive, qu'ils boivent: branch V, prenant, que je prenne, que tu prennes, qu'il prenne, qu'ils prennent; étant, que je sois, que tu sois, qu'il soit, que nous soyons, que vous soyez, qu'ils soient.

The third person of the imperative, being like the third person of the present of the subjunctive, they

have both the same formation.

OBSERVATION. This formation does not by any

means prevent the changing of the y into i in verbs in which custom has introduced it, as: voyant, que je voie; employant, que j'emploie; essayant, que j'essaie.

From the participle past are formed the compound tenses, by adding to it the tenses of the auxiliaries avoir and être, as: j'ai aimé, j'ai eu aimé; je suis tombé; j'ai été battu.

AGREEMENT OF THE VERB WITH THE SUBJECT.

We have already seen that the subject is that of which something is affirmed, and it may always easily be known; the answer to this question: qui est-ce qui? who, or what is it? always pointing it out so as never to be mistaken. When we say: Pierre vit, Peter lives; l'oiseau vole, the bird flies, if we ask: qui est-ce qui vit? Who is it that lives? qui est-ce qui vole? what is it that flies? the answers: Pierre and l'oiseau, show that Pierre and l'oiseau are the subjects of the verbs vit and vole.

Rule. The verb ought to be of the same number

and person as its subject.

EXAMPLES.

Jeris. I laugh. Nous parlons, We speak.
Tajones, Thou playest. Pous plaisantez, You jest.
Il aime, He loves. Its sont fous,
La vertu est aimable.
Virtue is amiable.

Ris is in the singular number, and the first person, because jc, its subject, is in the singular and the first person. Jours is in the singular and the second person, because tu is in the singular and the second person, &c.

OBSERVATIONS. 1º. When a verb has two subjects in the singular number, that verb is put in the

plural.

EXAMPLE.

Min pire & ma mire m'aiment tendrement.
My fat we and mother love me tenderly.

Then a verb relates to subjects of different grand agrees with the first, in preference to the other

other two, and with the second in preference to the third. We first name the person to whom we are speaking, and always name ourselves last.

Vous, votre frère & moi, nous lisons ensemble la brochure nouvelle.

You, your brother and I, we read together the new pam-

Vous & votre frère, vous viendrez avec moi.

You and your brother, you will come with me.

3°. When a verb has qui relative for its subject, it is put in the same number and person as the noun or pronoun to which qui relates.

EXAMPLES.

Est-ce moi qui ai dit cette nouvelle ? Is it I who fold this news? Est-ce nous qui l'avons voulu?

Is it we who desired it?

Les hommes quiaiment sincèrement la vertu sont leureux. Those who sincerely love virtue are happy.

EXERCISE.

OBSERVATION. Should the learner have done the preceding exercises upon the verbs, before he had finished those on the article, adjectives and pronouns, he must stop here, until he have gone through the whole of the exercises, and seen the preliminary remarks on the verbs and the formation of tenses.

The freest of all men is he who can be free even in sla-

libre pouvoir Are we not often blind to our own very itself. s'aveugler sur clavage + defects? All men are inclined to laziness, but the tendre art. paresse savages of hot countries are the laziest of all men. De sauvages chaud paresseux you think of imposing long on the credulity of the public? * en imposer à crédulité His uprightness and honesty make him sought after faire le rechercher inf-1. Strength of body and of soul do not every body.

A good heart and a fine always meet together. se rencontrer ensemble.

eoul are precious gifts of nature. You, your friend and I, have each a different opinion. Take good se garder you and your brother, not to give way to the impetuosity of your temper. He that complains most se plaindre le plus of men, is not always he that has most reason to complain être fondé of them. You that wish to enrich your mind with vouloir thoughts strongly conceived and nobly expressed, read sortement rendu noblement exprimé

the works of Homer and Plato.

The learner ought to be told, in regard to the first observation, that many authors of the last century have put in the singular the verb which has two subjects singular, when these subjects express ideas nearly synonimous. Above fifty instances of it may be found in Bossuet: but now, we follow the rule of the agreement. With regard to the second observation, politeness requires that we should conform to it; but there are cases wherein we may dispense with the rule. One of the editors of the dictionary of the French Academy has said: Ni moi, ni d'autres, n'avons pu rien comprendre à cette phrase. Neither I, nor any body else, has been able to understand any thing in that sentence. Here we see that he has placed moi first, and that he has not put nous before z'azons, which, however, is required by most grammarians. A sentence like this is to be found in a work published by one of the most learned members of the French National Institute.

N. B. It may not be improper to point out to the Icarner the difference between the French and the English construction. In the translation of the above sentence, the English verb agrees with the subject nearest to it, which is not the case in the French.

OF THE GOVERNMENT OF VERES.

We have said that an active verb was that after which we might put quelqu'un or quelque chose; Ekewise (page 96) that the word which is put after

the verb is called the government, or regimen of that verb. We then observed, that this regimen might be known by asking the question, qu'est-ce que? This regimen we call direct, and it may be either a noun or a pronoun.

RULE. When the regimen of the active verb is a noun, it is generally placed after the verb; when a

pronoun, it is placed before it.

EXAMPLES.

Ma mere aime ses enfans. Aimer le prochain comme vous-My mother loves her children.

mi me.

Love your neighbour as your-

We ought to say: je veus aime, I love vou, instead of j'aime vous: il m'aime, he loves me, instead of !! aime moi.

Beside this regimen direct, some active verbs may have a second, which is called indirect, and is marked. by the words à or de, as:

Il a fait un présent à sa sœur, Il acce se son ami d'impeu-He has made a present to his dence. sister.

He accuses his friend of im-

prudence.

This second regimen is known by the answer to these questions: \tilde{a} qui? to whom? \tilde{a} quoi? to what? de qui? of whom? de quoi? of what? as: A qui a-t-il fait un présent? to whom did he make a present i à sa sœur; to his sister. De quoi accuse-t-il son ami? of what does he accuse his friend? d'imprudence; of imprudence.

The regimen of passive verbs is de, or par, before the noun, or pronoun that follows them, as:

La souris est mangée par le chat, Un enfant sage est aimé de The mouse is eaten by the cat. ses parens,

A good child is loved by its parents.

OBSERVATION. We ought never to use the word par, by, before Dien, God. We say: Les michans seront punis de Dieu, which, in order to avoid making use of by, may be thus englished: God will punish the wicked.

P 2

Some few neuter verbs have no regimen, as: dor-

mir, to sleep; but many of them have.

RULE. We put à or de before the noun, or pronoun that follows the neuter verb.

EXAMPLES.

Tout genre d'excès nuit à la santé,
Every kind of excess is hurtful to health.

Il médit de tout le monde,
He slanders every body.

Ce sentiment a plu au roi,
This sentiment has pleased the king.
Il jouit de toute sa liberté,
He has the full enjoyment of his liberty.

We have seen that the reflected verbs have for their regimen the personal pronouns me, te, se, nons and vous, and that this regimen is sometimes direct and

sometimes indirect.

Grammarians have very properly distinguished the reciprocal from the reflected verb. The latter expresses an action exercised by a subject upon itself, and not upon an object foreign to it: but the former denotes that two beings are exercising the same action upon each other at the same time. In the reflected verb, the action is reflected, as it were, upon its own subject: in the reciprocal verb, there is a reciprocity of action.

The regimen of a verb may also be another verb in

the infinitive.

A verb governs another in the infinitive, 1°. without a preposition, as: aller, aimer micux, falloir, devoir, espérer, envoyer, daigner, laisser, oser, &c. 2°. with the preposition de, as: achever, conseiller, affecter, craindre, promettre, s'assurer, &c. 3°. with the preposition à, as: avoir, aimer, s'appreier, consentir, se plaire, &c. But the knowledge of these differences can only be acquired by long habit and continual practice.

Désirer, to wish, governs the verb that follows it, either without a preposition, or with the preposition de, as: il désire aller, or d'aller vous voir, he wishes to go and see you. Several good authors make use of either regimen, but the first seems to be more general. According to some grammarians, it is the

same with espérer, to hope.

Commencer, to begin; continuer, to continue; con-

traindre, to force; engager, to engage; exhorter, to exhort; forcer, to force; manquer, to fail; and obliger, to oblige, take à, when we wish to avoid the hiatus which would be produced by the repetition of several a's or the jingle of several vowels, and de, when we would avoid the harsh sound of several de's in the same sentence, as: il me force d'abandonner à d'autres cette entreprise, he forces me to leave this undertaking to others: il commençoit à demander de vos nouvelles, he began to enquire after you.

S'efforcer, tacher, participer, manquer, tarder, prier, and être, take à or de, according to their different

meanings.

When they take \hat{a} .

S'efforcer, to force one's self; to use one's whole strength: No vous efforcez pas à courir, do not force yourself to 1 un.

Tacher, to aim at, to try, &c.: Vous tâchez à m'embarrasser par des argumens captieux, you try, you want to perplex me by sophistical arguments.

Participer, to participate in, to share, &c.: c'est participer en quelque sorte au crime, que de ne pas l'empécher quand on le peut, we, in a manner, participate in crime, if we do not prevent it, when we have it in our power.

Manquer, to fail: veus avez manqué à faire ce que je veus aveis dit, you have failed to do what I had told you.

When they take de.

To endeavour: efforcons-nous de mériter l'estime, &c. let us endeavour to deserve the esteem, &c.

To endeavour: tâchons d'acquérir des connoissances, let us endeavour to acquire, knowledge.

To participate of, to partake of the nature of, &c.: les pierres dont on tire l'alun participent de la nature du plomb: the stones from which alum is extracted partake of the nature of lead.

To be like to, to be near, &c.: il a manqué de tomber, he was like to fall; he was near falling.

Tarder, to tarry, &c.: le corps de réserve tarda trop à donner, the reserve delayed too long coming

to the charge.

Prier, to pray, to request, &c. with the verbs dejeuner, diner, goûter, souper, when it is a formal invitation: il m'a prié à diner, he has invited me to dinner.

Etre, to belong: ce palais est au roi, that palace belongs to the king.

To long, an impersonal verb : il me tarde de le voir, I long to see him.

With the same verbs, when it is a chance invitation: il m'a prié de diner.

Meaning, it is the business, the duty, with à or de : c'est au maître à parler, & au d'écouter, the master is to speak and it is the duty of the scholar to listen.

OF THE NATURE AND USE OF MOODS AND TENSES.

OF THE INDICATIVE.

The indicative is the manner of expressing the different tenses with simple affirmation only. It contains eight tenses, viz.: the present absolute, the imperfect, or present relative, the preterit definite, the preterit indefinite, the preterit anterior, the pluperfeet, the future simple, and the future anterior.

The present absolute denotes that a thing is, or is doing at the time when it is mentioned, as: j'aime, I

love; ils jouent, they play.

The imperfect, or present relative, denotes the past with regard to the present; it shows that a thing was present at a time which is past: je soupois quand il entra, I was supping when he came in.

The preterit definite denotes a thing done at a time

which is entirely past: j'écrivis hier à Rome, I wrote yesterday to Rome. The time is precisely determined.

The preterit indefinite denotes a thing either done at a time which is past, but not particularly determined, as: il m'a fait un vrai plaisir en venant me voir, he has given me real pleasure by coming to see me: or at a time past, though still unfinished, as: j'ai vu cette semaine beaucoup de monde, I have seen many

people this week.

The preterit anterior denotes that a thing was done at a time which is past, and is either definite, or indefinite. The preterit anterior definite relates to a time which is entirely past, as: j'eus diné hier à midi, I had dined yesterday at twelve o'clock. The preterit anterior indefinite relates to a time which is not yet quite elapsed, as: j'ai eu déjeûné ce matin à dix heures, I had breakfasted this morning at ten o'clock.

The pluperfett denotes that a thing was done before another which was done itself at a time past: j'avois soupé, quand il entra, I had supped, when he came

111.

The future absolute denotes that a thing will be, or will be done at a time which is not yet come: j'irai demain à la campagne, I shall go to-morrow into the

country.

The future anterior denotes that when a thing shall happen, another thing will then have been: quand j'aurai fini, je sortirai, when I shall have done, or when I have done, I shall go out.

OF THE CONDITIONAL.

The conditional is the manner of expressing the affirmation, with dependance upon some condition.

It has two tenses, viz. the present and the past.

The present of the conditional denotes, according to circumstances, either that a thing would be, or would be done now, as: je lirois, sij'avois des livres, I would read, if I had books; or, that a thing would be, or would be done, upon certain conditions: je ferois votre affaire avant qu'il soit peu, si elle dépendoit uniquement de moi, I would settle vour business before long, if it only depended upon me.

The past of the conditional denotes that a thing

would have been at a time which is past, upon some conditions: j'aurois fait votre affaire, si vous m'en eviez parlé, I would have settled your business, if you had mentioned it to me; or, j'eusse fait votre affaire, si vous m'en eussiez parlé.

OF THE IMPERATIVE.

The imperative, in verbs, is the manner of expressing, beside the affirmation, the act of commanding, exhorting, or entreating. It has but one tense, which denotes the present, with relation to the act of commanding, and the future with regard to the thing commanded: faites cela, do that.

OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

The subjunctive is the manner of expressing the affirmation with dependance upon something that precedes. It is called subjunctive, because it depends so far upon an antecedent, that it makes no longer a complete sense as soon as it is separated from it. It has four tenses, viz: the present, or future, the imper-

fest, the preterit and the pluperfest.

The present and future generally present themselves in the subjunctive under the same form, and they are distinguished only by circum tances. When we say: il faut que je vous aime bien pour supporter toutes vos inégalités, I must love you very much indeed, to bear with all your inequalities; it is evident that je vous aime denotes the present tense: but if we say, je doute qu'il vienne, I doubt whether he will come, the words il vienne are evidently for il viendra.

The imperfect of the subjunctive most commonly expresses a past action, but it is likewise susceptible of a future signification. If to these words: il estiparti, he is gone; we answer: je ne croyeis pas qu'il partit, I did not think he would go; this tense expresses a time past: but if the same answer be made to these words: il partira, he will go; then it certainly

is a future.

The preterit has likewise these two significations: if a falla que j'aie passé chez lui, I was obliged to

eall on him; is a past; but je n'entreprendrai pas cette affaire, que je n'aie consulté, 1 will not undertake this

business, before I have consulted; is a future.

It is the same with the pluperfest. This sentence: je ne croyois pas que vous eussiez sitét fait, I did not think you would have done so soon; expresses the past: but this: je voudrois que vous eussiez fait avans mon retour, I wish you might have done before I come back; expresses the future.

OF THE INFINITIVE.

The infinitive is, in verbs, the manner of expressing without affirmation, or of expressing affirmation indefinitely. It denotes the action or state in general, and consequently is not susceptible of either numbers

or persons.

The infinitive denotes, of itself, neither present, past, nor future: nevertheless, it is considered as denoting those tenses when it is following other verbs. The present always expresses a present relative to the preceding verb: as: je le vois, je le vis, je le verrai venir, I see, I saw, I shall see him come (coming). The past always expresses a past relative to the verb that precedes it, as: je crois, je croyois l'avoir vu venir, I think, I thought that I had seen him coming. To express a future, the infinitive must be preceded by the infinitive of the verb devoir, as: je croyois devoir y aller, I thought I was to go thither.

OBSERVATION. The infinitive also expresses a future after the verbs promettre, espérer, compter, s'attendre and menacer, as: il promet de venir (qu'il viendra), he promises to come (that he will come); il menace de s'y rendre (qu'il s'y rendra), he threatens

to go thither (that he will go thither).

We call a participle a word which partakes of the nature of the verb and of the adjective; of the verb, as it has its signification and regimen; of the adjective, as it expresses a quality. There are two participles, viz. the participle present and the participle past.

OF THE PARTICIPLE PRESENT.

The participle present always terminates in ant, aimant, finissant, recevant, rendant.

RULE. The participle present is always invariable,

that is, it takes neither gender nor number.

We say: une montagne, or des montagnes dominant sur des plaines immenses, a mountain, or mountains commanding immense plains; un homme, des hommes, une femme, des femmes lisant, a man, men, a woman, women reading. Thus, this participle is, according to circumstances, either masculine or femi-

nine, singular or plural.

OBSERVATION. We must not confound the participle present with some verbal adjectives, that is, adjectives derived from verbs. We say: c'est un homme obligeant, he is an obliging man; une femme obligeante, she is an obliging woman. These are not participles, because they have no government. But when we say: cette femme est d'un bon caractère, obligeant tout le monde, quand elle le peut, that woman is of a good disposition, obliging every body, whenever she has it in her power; obligeant is here a participle, since it governs tout le monde.

What grammarians call gerund is nothing but the participle present, to which is prefixed the word en: on se forme l'esprit, en lisant de bons livres, we form

our minds, by reading good books.

EXERCISE.

That mountain being very high, and thus commanding a dominer sur ëlové very well calculated for our vast extent of country, was ind-2 propre à tris-ésendu très They go cringing before the great, that observations. ramper devant pl. afin de they may be insolent to their equals. The state of pure avice égal pl. nature is the savage living in the desert, but living in his

family, knowing his children, loving them, making use of user

speech, and making himself understood. An agreeable lan-

gour insensibly laying hold of my senses, suspended gueur insensiblement s'emparer suspendre ind-3 the activity of my soul, and I fell asleep. Time is a real s'endormir ind-3

marplot, placing, replacing, ordering, disordering, impressing, brouilion mettre ranger imprimer erasing, approaching, removing, and making all things good effacer approcher éloigner rendre pl.f. and bad, and almost always impossible to be known again.

quasi méconnoissable

OF THE PARTICIPLE PAST.

The participle past presents more difficulties than the preceding one, and grammarians have long been at variance upon this question: In what case does it take gender and number? Without entering into any discussion, we shall state at full length what is the present practice on this important subject.

The participle past has various terminations: aimé,

fini, reçu, ouvert, disseus, &c.

This participle either agrees with its subject or its regimen.

AGREEMENT OF THE PARTICIPLE PAST WITH 1TS SUBJECT.

RULE I. The participle past, when it is accompanied by the auxiliary verb cire, agrees with its subject in gender and number; that is, we add to it c, if the subject be feminine, and s, if it be in the plural.

EXAMPLES.

Mon frère est tombé, My brother is fallen down. Mes frères sont tombés, My brothers are fallen down. La nuit sera bientot passée, Ma sœur est tombée,
My sister is fallen down.
Mes sœurs sont tombées,
My sisters are fallen down.
Les spectacles sont fréquentée
par les gens oisifs,

The night will soon be over. The theatres are frequented by the idle.

Elle est este de tout le Cette fleur est fort recherchée, monde,

She is esteemed by every This flower is much sought body.

OBSERVATION. In the compound tenses of reflected verbs, the participle agrees with the regimen, and not with the subject. In this sentence: je me suis

promenée, promenée agrees with the government me; hut in this: Lucrèce s'est donné la mort, the participle donné takes no gender, because se is for à soi, and because, in this case, as will be seen hereafter, the participle takes neither-gender nor number.

EXERCISE.

Fire-arms were not known to the ancients. Ishmaël, arme à feu f. ind-4 connu de the son of Abraham, & known among the Arabs Arabe pl. comme the man from whom they are sprung, and circumcision sortz has remained with them as the mark of their origin. être demeuré leur Heaven is that permanent city wherein the just are to be 2 cité f. 1 où received after this life. In Abraham's time, the threatenings menace pl-f. of the true God were dreaded by Pharaoh, king of Egypt: Dieu ind-2 redouté Pharaon but in the time of Moses, all the nations were perverted, f. ind-2 perverti Moiseand the world, which God had made to manifest his power, was become a temple of idols. That dreadful idole pl. puissance f. devenu crisis, which threatened the state with instant destruction, de prochain 2 ind-2 She is come to bring us all kinds was happily soon over. passé venu * Sciences have always been protected by of refreshments. protezé rafraichissement enlightened governments.

RULE II. The participle past, when it is accompanied by the verb avoir, never agrees with its subject.

EXAMPLES.

Ma sœur a écrit, Mon frère a écrit, My sister has written. My brother has written. Mes sœurs ont écrit, Mes frères ont écrit, My sisters have written. My brothers have written. Tai contraint les soldats à Les Amazones ont acquis de la marcher, célébrité, I have forced the soldiers to The Amazons have acquired some celebrity. march. OrOBSERVATION. The participle été is the only one in the French language that never varies. We say, il, or elle a été, he or she has been; ils, or elles ant été, they have been.

EXERCISE.

The Romans have successively triumphed over the successivement triompher de most warlike nations. Lampridius relates that Adrian had belliqueux 2 1

erected to Jesus Christ some temples, which were still élever ind-6 de que on ** encore to be seen in histime. Happy those princes who nevoir ind-2 de ** art.

ver made use of their power but to do good! We user ind-4 que pow art.
have spent the whole day in tormenting ourselves.

passer journée à se tourmenter

One has seldom seen a great stock of good sense in a man of

fonds sens

imagination. The errors of Descartes have proved very

useful to Newton.

AGREEMENT OF THE PARTICIPLE PAST WITH ITS REGIMEN.

RULE I. The participle past always agrees with its regimen direct, when that regimen is placed before the participle, whatever may be the auxiliary verb that accompanies it.

EXAMPLES.

Les écoliers que j'ai eus ont fait de grands progrès. Lucrece s'est tuée. J'ai remposé les livres que vous m'aurez prêtés. Que de soins je me suis donnés!

Quelle affaire avez-vous entreprise?

Quand la race de Cain se fut multipliée.

Ces yeux que n'oni émus ni soupirs ni terreur.

The pupils I have had have made a rapid progress.
Lucretia has killed herself.
I have sent back the books which you had le r me.
What pains I have token!

What business have you undertaken?

When the race of Cain had multiplied.

Those eyes which neither sighs nor terror have moved. OBSERVATION. The regimen put before the participle is, in general, one of these pronouns que, me, te, se, le, la, les, nous, vous; but it is sometimes a noun joined to the pronoun quel, or preceded by the word of quantity que, as may be seen in the

before mentioned examples.

The ancient grammarians made two exceptions to this rule. They were of opinion that the participle ought to take neither gender nor number, 10, when the subject is put after the participle, as: les lettres qu'a écrit Madame de Sévigné, the letters which Madame de Sévigné has written: la leçon que vous ont donné vos maîtres, the lesson which your masters have given you: but this exception, to which Boileau, Racine, &c. would never submit, is now universally rejected in France, and we ought to say écrites in the first example, and donnée in the second.

2°. When the participle, although preceded by its regimen direct, is followed by an adjective making part of the preceding regimen, as: Adam et Eve que Dieu avoit créé innocens, Adam and Eve whom God had created innocent: la ville de Londres s'est rendu florissante par son commerce, the city of London has made itself flourishing by its commerce. This likewise is contrary to the present practice, and we ought to say créés in the first example, and rendue in the

second.

EXERCISE.

All the letters I have received confirm

that important

f. relevoir confirmer 2
news. The agitated life which I have led till now nouvelle I agitated life which I have led till now mouvelle I agitated I f. mener jusqu'à présent makes me sigh for retirement. The difficulties which soupiner après art, retraite f. f. the Academies have made to one another, do not seem se faire paroître to me easy to be resolved. The sciences which you have aisa résondre f. etudied will prove infinitely useful to you. The death which the contraction of the sciences in the cities of the science of the cities of t

Lucretia gave herself has made her immortal. The cities se donner immortaliser f.

which those nations have built to themselves are but a heap peuple se bûtir neque amus The celebrity which the Amazons have acof cottages.

chaumière f. grired to themselves is nothing but the dream of a credulous

s'acquérir que reve mind. The persons whom you have instructed appear to ine

instruire

possessed of reason and taste. The opportunities which he occasion f. has had of beating the enemy, and of which he has not

battre inf-1

laid hold, have made him suspected of treason. Nothing profiter faire soupgounce tradition can equal the ardour of the troops. I have seen setting off.

treupe f. voir partir inf-1 The chimeras which she has got in her head, are beyond chimère f. se mettre busser all belief. What steps have I not taken? What fortunes

démarche croyance faire has not this revolution overthrown! What tears has she not

renverser que de larmes shed, what sighs has she not heaved! The Amazons have

soupir pousser

made themselves famous by their courage. The city of Loncélèbre se rendre don has made itself, by its commerce, the metropolis of the

mérrop.le universe. I have thought her agitated by the Furies. The

craire tongue which Cicero and Virgil have written will last .

écrire through their works. I could have wished to avoid

de entrer dans details, but I have thought them necessary. The Tribunes croire

demanded of Clodius the execution of the promise which the demander å

Consul Valerius had given them.

N. B We have not found in our most famous writers since fifty years, a single instance of the two exceptions which the ancient grammarians make to this rule: they all agree, even in poetry, in rejecting them; which can no longer leave any doubt about the present usage.

RULE II. The participle past never agrees with its regimen, either when that participle is without a

regimen direct, or when, having a regimen direct, that regimen is placed after it.

EXAMPLES.

La lettre dont je vous ai par-

La perte et les profits auxquels il a participé.

Les académies se sont fait des objections.

Vous avez instruit ces personnes à dessiner.

sonnes à dessiner. Lucrèce s'est donné la mort. The letter which I have mentioned to you.

The loss and profits in which he has participated.

The academies have proposed objections to one another.

You have taught those persons to draw.

Lucretia has put herself to death.

OBSERVATION. We have in French about 600 verbs which have no regimen direct, 550 of which are conjugated with the auxiliary verb avoir.

EXERCISE.

The persons whose visit you had announced to me are

1 5 2 annoncer 4 3

not come. Men have built themselves cities. The Amazons

venir se bâtir have acquired great celebrity. I have forced the sol-

beaucoup de contraindre diers to march. That woman has given herself fine goruns.

marcher see donner (de) robes

Letters and writing have been invented to represent

3 Ecriture 4 on 1 inventer 2 pour peindre speech. He has left a very splendid glory. She has cut her

un éclatant se couper *
two fingers. Titus had made his wife mistress of his

rendre ind-5
riches. I have given myself a deal of trouble. Commerce
bien bien peine

has made this city flourishing. God has created men increer ind-3

nocent. They have appointed themselves a rendez-vous.

N. B. Some grammatians are of opinion that we may sav: Mes sæurs se sont fait religieuses; elle s'est rendu la mastresse; elle s'est trouvé guérie; les Amazones se sont rendu célèbres; Lucrèce s'est tué soi-même; Madame s'est trouvé mal ce matin. But, in all these examples, the regiment is direct and precedes the participle: of course, they come under Rule I. and ought to take gender and number.

RULE III. The participle past takes neither gender nor number, either when the participle and the auxiliary verb to which it is joined are used impersonally, or when that participle is followed by a verb which governs the nouns or pronouns preceding it.

EXAMPLES.

Les chaleurs excessives qu'il a fait cet été ont causé biendes maladies.

Quelle facheuse aventure vous

La maison que f'ai fait batir.

Imitez les vertus que vous avez entendu louer.

Les mathématiques que vous n'avez pas voulu que j'étudiasse.

Elle s'est laissé séduire.

The excessive heats which we have had this summer, have been the cause of many diseases.

What unpleasant adventure have you met with?

The house which I have or-

dered to be built.

Imitate the virtues which you have heard praised.

The mathematics which you would not permit me to study.

She has suffered herself to be seduced.

OBSERVATION. To make a right application of the second part of this rule, we ought to examine whether we can put the regimen immediately after the participle. As we cannot say: j'ai fait la maison, vous avez entendu les vertus, vous u'avez pas' voulu les mathématiques, it follows that the regimen belongs to the second verb. Sometimes, however, the regimen may relate either to the participle, or to the verb, according to the meaning of the speaker. For instance, we ought to say: je l'ai vu peindre, meaning, I saw her picture drawn, and je l'ai vue peindre, meaning, I saw her painting.

EXERCISE.

The great changes ' which have token place in y avoir ministration, have astonished many people. The heavy bien des rains which we have had in the spring, have done great pluie f. faire to the harvest. The scarcity which there was injury ire beaucoup · · récolte disette last winter, has afforded the opportunity of doing uccasion donner faire inf 1

 Q_{ij}

good. What neves has come to you? The scholars whom venir

you made read, have made great progress. The figures ind-4 (dc)

which you have learnt to draw are of a great beauty.

We ought never to swerve from the good path fall ir ind-1 s'éloigner route f

which we have begun to pursue. The measures which on commencer surve mesures

you have advised me to adopt have not succeeded. The conseiller de prendre

rule which I have begun to explain seems to me very règle explaner paroître easy to understand. You see that I have not been mistaken

saisir que se trom/er ind-4

on the affairs which I had foreseen you would have.

prévoir que cond-1

N. B. 1°. We ought to say, although Restant and some other grammarians are of a contrary opinion: le dieu Mercure est un de ceux que les anciens ont le plus multipliés, the god Mercury is one of those the ancients have multiplied the most; ce jour est un de ceux qu'ils ont consacrés aux larmes, this day is one of those which they have consecrated to tears; c'est une des plus belles actions que j'ai vues, it is one of the finest actions I have seen. All these examples come under Rule I.

2°. Here are two examples which might puzzle foreigners, and perhaps many Frenchmen; the first, because the verb which governs the regimen is not expressed, and the second, because the regimen is understood. Te vous ai rendu tous les services que j'ai voulu, que j'ai dû, que j'ai pu; I have done you all the services I would, I ought, I could. De la façon que j'ai dit, or que j'ai parlé, on a dû m'entendre; In the manner I have said, or I have spoken, they must have understood me. Add rendre at the end of the first sentence, and it comes under Rule III. In the second, put les choses after dit, and de ces choses after parlé, and it will come under Rule II.

after parlé, and it will come under Rule II.

3°. The Abbé d'Olivet, Mr. Duclos, &c. will

have us say :

Avez-vous entendu chan- Avez-vous entendu chanter la nouvelle ariette? ter la nouvelle aetrice? Je l'ai entendu chanter.

Une personne s'est présentée à la porte; je l'ai fait passer.

Avec des soins, on auroit sauvé cette personne; on l'a fait mourir. Je l'ai entendue chanter.

Une personne s'est présentée à la porte; je l'ai laissée passer.

Avec des soins, on auroit sauvé cette personne; on l'a laissée mourir.

They bring the examples of the first column under Rule II. and those of the second under Rule I. But the Abbé de Condillac thinks otherwise, and considers, in all the above cases, the verb and the participle as forming an indivisible idea. We cannot give our opinion upon this subject in an elementary work like the present.

CHAP. VI.

OF PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions are words which serve to express the relations of things one to another, and this they do by joining the noun or pronoun following to the word that precedes them. When we say: le fruit de l'arbre, the fruit of the tree, de expresses the relation between fruit and arbre. When we say: utile à l'homme, useful to man, à makes the noun homme relate to the adjective utile. When we say: j'ai reque de mon père, I have received from my father, de serves to join the noun père to the verb requ. De and à are prepositions, and the word which follows them is called the regimen of the preposition. Some grammarians term it also complement, because the preposition only expresses a general and imperfect sense, which, to become particular and perfect, needs being restrained by a word.

These words are called prepositions, because they are generally placed before the noun which they go-

ern.

There are various kinds of prepositions; the principal ones are as follows.

Those denoting the place are:

10. Chez, at. Il est chez lui, he is at home.

2º. Dans, in. Il se promène dans le jardin, he is walking in the garden.

. 3º. Devant, before. Il est toujours devant mes yeur, he is always before my eyes.

4°. Derrière, behind. Il ne regarde jamais der-

riere lui, he never looks behind him.

5°. Parmi, among. Que de fous parmi les hommes! how many fools among men!

6°. Sous, under. La tanpe vit sous terre, the

mole lives under ground.

7°. Sur, upon, on. Il a le chapeau sur la téte,

he has his hat on (his head).

8°. Vers, towards. L'aimant se tourne vers le nord, the loadstone points towards the north.

EXERCISE.

We find less real happiness in an elevated condition

There was a delightful than in a middling state. moven 2. ctat y avoir

Among so many different grove behind his house. tant de

a religious worship. nations, there is not one but has qui nesubj-1.

Nature displays her riches with magnificence under the déployer

Eternal snows are to be seen torrid zone. 1. f. ds 2. 1. on voir ind-1. on the summit of the Alps. One is never truly easy

but at home. Towards the north, nature presents

que soi. a gloomy and savage prospect.

triste 2. 3. aspect m. 1 He walked before me

3. aspect m. 1.

to serve me as a guide.

servir de

Those denoting the order are:

1º. Avant, before. La nouvelle est arrivée avant to courrier, the news are come before the courier.

20. Après, after. Il est trop vain pour marcher après les autres, he is too proud to walk after other people.

30. Entre, between. Elle a son enfant entre les

bras, she holds her child between (in) her arms.

4º. Depu.s, since, from. Depuis la création jusqu'à nous, from the creation to the present time.

5°. Dès, from. Dès son enfance, from his infamey: des sa source, from its source.

FXERCISE.

From the earliest infancy, I have had a horror for tendre 2. Many very astonishing * (dc) events lving. mensonge. taken place for these ten years. Between those se passer two mountains is a hollow deep road. creux 2. et profond 3. chemin m. 1. before day light, in order to enjoy the magse lever ind-6. jouir de manificent spectacle of the rising sun. After such great (dr) si gnifique levant 2 1 (at) 31 raults, it only remained for us to repair them levant 2 1 9:42 2 ne rester

Those denoting union are:

as well as we could. de notre mieux.

1°. Avec, with. Il faut savoir avec qui on se lie, we ought to know the persons with whom we associate.

2°. Durant, during. Durant la guerre, during the

war : durant l'été, during the summer.

This preposition expressing a continued duration: 3°. Pendant, during, in. Pendant l'hiver, in winter time: pendant la paix, in time of peace.

This denotes a duration limited, restricted to a given time.

- 4º. Outre, beside. Outre des qualités aimables, il faut encore, &c., beside amiable qualities there ought still, &c.
- 5°. Suivant, according. Je me déciderai suivant les circonstances, I shall determine according to circumstances.
- 60 Selon, according, by. Le sage se conduit selon les maximes de la raison, a wise man acts according to the dictates of reason.

EXERCISE.

With wit, politeness, and a little forwardness to oblige, peu de préverance (de)one generally succeeds in the world. Baside the exréussir terior advantages of figure, and the graces of deportment, art. maintier

she possesses an excellent heart, a just mind, and a sen-

sible soul. Always behave yourself according to 2. 1. se conduire *

the maxims which I have inculcated in you. In the inculguer *

course of that siege, the commandant of the city made

some very lucky sallies. We are fit for meditation de heureux sortie. On a during winter.

Those denoting opposition are:

1º. Contre, against. Je plaide contre lui, I plead against him.

20. Malgré, in spite of. Il l'a fait malgré moi,

he has done it in spite of me.

3°. Nonobstant, notwithstanding. Nonobstant ce qu'on lui a dit, notwithstanding what has been said to him.

EXERCISE.

We cannot act long against our own character; savoir cond-1. agir
notwithstanding all the pains we take to disguise it, it shows itself and betrays us in many occasions: it is in se montrer trahir nous vain for us, in spite of ourselves, we are known at last. avoir beau faire à la longue.

Those denoting separation are:

10 Sans, without. Des troupes sans chefs, troops without commanders.

20. Excepté, except. Excepté quelques malheureux, except some wretches.

30. Hors, except, save. Tout est perdu hors

Phonneur, all is lost save honour.

4°. Hormis, except, but. Tous sont entrés hormis mon frère, they are all come in, but, except, my brother.

OF SEPARATION.

Had it not been for your care, I should have been sans ignorant all my life-time. The philosophers of antiquity, to a few, have held the world eternal. All

have laid down their arms, except two regiments who

have preferred making their way through the enemy, se faire four

Every thing is absurd and ridiculous in that work, except

a chapter or two.

Those denoting the end are;

1°. Envers, towards, to. Il est charitable envers

le pauvre, he is charitable to the poor.

2°. Touchant, respecting. Il a cerit touchant cette affaire, he has written respecting that business. 3°. Pour, for. Il travaille pour le bien public, he

lahours for the public good.

EXERCISE.

I have written to you concerning that business in which I take the most lively interest, and as I know your benevolence bienveillance towards the unfortunate, I make not the least doubt that you

ne douter nullement

will bestow all your cares upon it, not so much for the donner subj-1 v moins

satisfaction of obliging me, as for the pleasure of justifying obliger justifier

innocence and confounding calumny.

confondre art.
Those denoting the cause and the means are:

10. Par, by. Il l'a fléchi par ses prières, he has

softened him by his prayers.

20. Moyennant, by means, for. Il réussira moyennant vos avis, he will succeed by means of your counsels.

3°. Attendu, on account of, for. Il ne peut partir attendu les vents contraires, he cannot sail on account of contrary winds.

EXERCISE.

and disarmed by submission? Through the precautions we désarmer

to k, we avoided the rocks of that dangerous coast, ind-3. Equal voice.

Ording to the bad state of my father's health, I shall not travel this year.

The use of the three following ones is much varied

and very extensive.

à generally denotes the end and limit of a relation. It denotes the place we are going to, the aim we have

in view: aller à Londres, to go to London: courir à sa perte, to run to one's ruin: aspirer à la gloire, to seek after glory. It also denotes the place we are at: être à Rome, to be at Rome; time: à midi, at twelve o'clock; circumstances: à ce sujet, on this subject; the manner: supplier à mains jointes, to pray with both hands, to beg hard; and by analogy: peindre à l'huile, to paint in oil-colours; the state we are in: être à son aise, to be at ease; the quality of things: bas à trois fils, three thread stockings; the end and use of a thing: une table à manger, a dining table; the disposition of a person: homme à réussir, a man (capable) to succeed; and by analogy: crime à ne pas pardonner, &c. a crime not to be torgiven, &c.

EXERCISE.

Fathers! give good counsels, and still better encore 3 (de) meilleur examples to your children. Should we go to Paris, would ind-2 it not be running to our destruction? A good minister ce cond-1 crair only aims at the glory of well-serving his country. When the que servir we were to the country, we devoted the morning to study, consacrer we took a walk at noon, and at three or four o'clock, we se promener theme went a hunting or fishing. Upon this, he related to

us a charming story. Michel Angelo has painted a great

Michel Ange

deal in fresco. It is a bed with every posts and hind fresque ce colonne d'ivoire pied de feet. That man with his gloomy looks and blunt biche regard pr. art. brusque deportment seems to me fit only to serve as a bugbear.

ne que servir de épouvanter

It is a thing not to be forgotten.

De generally denotes the place where we come from, the point where a thing begins, from which it is extracted, from which it takes its name: je viens de France, I come from France; d'un bout à l'autre, from one end to the other. It also expresses the relations of appertenance: le palais du roi, the king's palace

palace; les facultés de l'ame, the faculties of the soul! qualities: homme d'esprit, a man of wit; femme de sens, a woman of sense; a part of a whole: moitié de, the half of; quart de, the fourth part of; the state? mourir de faim, to die of hunger; de soif, for thirst; the means: vivre de fruits, to live upon fruit; sauter de joie, to jump for joy, &c.

EXERCISE.

I come from London, where I have spent eight days very agreeably. From one end of the horizon to the other, the sky was covered with thick black clouds.

épais 2 et 3 nuage 1 ciel of Paros is not finer than that which we get from Carrara. nous vient Carrare

The Romans held themselves descended from the se dire ind-2

Trojans, and Augustus had the littleness to pride himself on

pretended descent from Encas. What have the prétendu descendance f. Enée his pretended descent faculties of the soul in common with the properties of matter? He is a man of wit dull, dry and without any agreement. lourd sec

Montaigne, Mad. de Sévigné and la Fontaine, 'were writers

of truly original genius. One half of the terrestrial world is globe covered with water, and above a third part of the rest is without inhabitants, either through extreme heat, or through

par excessive cold. In that happy retreat, we lived on the milk asyle ind-2

of our flocks and the delicious fruits of our orchards.

En generally relates to time and place: être en Angleterre, to be in England; aller en Italie, to go to Italy; it also denotes the state: être en bonne santé, to be in good health; en paix, at peace; en guerre, at war; the cause: il l'a fait en haine de lui, he did it through hatred for him, &c.

EXERCISE.

He had been for a long while living in France, of vivre ind-2 depuis *

which he was passionately fond: the troubles which agitated aimer le séjour ind-4

R

that fine kingdom obliged him to retire to Switzerland, de Suisse

whence he soon after set off for Italy. We were at peace d'où se rendre ind-2

and enjoyed all its charms, when ambition rekindled the jouir de rallumer ind-3 torch of war, and forced us to put our frontiers into a state of

defence. The savage is almost continually at war: he canpresque toujours

not remain in quiet. He has acted, on this occasion, like a rester repos dans

great man.

N. B. These last three prepositions are called of specification: they have many uses which can only be known by practice. According to the Abbé Girard, à has twenty-five, de fifty, and en sixteen.

CHAP. VII.

OF THE ADVERB.

THE adverb is a word which is generally joined to the verb or the adjective, in order to determine its signification. When we say; cet enfant parle distinctionent, that child speaks distinctly; by the word distinctionent we give to understand that he speaks one way rather than another. Nevertheless, we say, though very improperly, that the adverb modifies the verb; for, it only modifies the attribute contained in the verb.

OBSERVATION. There are adjectives which are sometimes used as adverbs. We say: il chante juste, he sings true; elle chante faux; she sings out of tune; ils ne voient pas clair, they do not see clear; cette fleur sent bon, that flower has a good smell, &c.

There are adverbs of manner, which express how things are done. They are an abreviated expression, answering the end of a noun and a preposition: sagement, wisely, is for avec sagesse, with wisdom. This is the most numerous class.

Adverbs are formed from adjectives, in the following

manner:

RULE I. When the adjective ends in the masculine with a vowel, the adverb is formed by adding

ment, as; modeste-ment, modestly; poli-ment, politely; ingénu-ment, ingenuously; assidu-ment, assid

duously, &c.

EXCEPTION. Followent, foolishly, nouvellement, newly, mollement, softly, are formed according to the following rule. We at present write vraiment, truly, gainent, gaily, éperdument, desperately, ingénument, ingenuously, &c. therefore they follow the preceding rnle.

RULE II. When the adjective ends with a consonant, in the masculine, the adverb is formed from the feminine termination, by adding ment, as: grand, grande-ment, greatly; franc, franche-mont, frankly; frais, fraiche ment, freshly; naif, naive-ment, artlessly; long, longue-ment, a long time, &c.

EXCEPTIONS. 1º. Gentil, makes gentiment, prettilv. 2°. The adjectives ending in ant and ent form their adverbs by changing ant into amment, and ent into emment, as: constant, constamment, constantly; éloquent, éloquemment, eloquently. Lent, and présent, are the only two of this class, that follow the general rule.

OBSERVATION. These five adverbs: comment, how, incessamment, incessantly, notamment, especially, sciemment, knowingly, and nuitanment, nightly, are

not derived from any adjectives.

Adverbs denoting the manner, and a few of the other classes, have the three degrees of comparison, which are formed as in adjectives. We say: profondément, in the positive, aussi, plus, or moins profondément, in the comparative, fort, bien, or très profondément, in the superlative absolute, and le plus profundément, in the superlative relative. The following are not susceptible of any degrees, viz. totalement, extrémement, suffisamment, ainsi, de meme, envain, exprès, comment, incessamment, notamment and nuitamments

Mal, bad, and bien; well, have in the comparative pris, worse, and mieux, better; and in the superlative, be pis or le plus mal, the worst, and le mieux, the best.

EXERCISE.

Bourdaloue and Massillon have both spoken very eloquently on evangelical truths; but the former has principally propremier Frangelique 2

pored to himself to convince the mind; the latter has genese proposer de convainere

second ne

rally had in view to touch the heart. Several of la avoir en vue que detoucher

Brayere's characters are as finely drawn as delicately expressed.

caruftire tracer

Buffon is one of the best writers of this age: he thinks deepdraws strongly, and expresses himself readiment prindre fortement s'exprisses infinsell readiment prindre fortement s'exprimer rebly.

Corneille and Racine are the two most famous breach tragic writers: the former's pieces are strongly,

3 tragique 2 pcëts 1 celui-là 2 1 but incorrectly written; the latter's are more regularly

incorrectement celles de celui-ci 2

fine, more purely written, and more delicately thought. penser

There are still various sorts of adverbs.

1º. Those denoting affirmation, as: certes, certainly; oui, yes; volontiers, willingly; soit, be it so.

Oui, c'est mon nom, yes, that is my name: venez,

volontiers, soit, come; very well; be it so.

Doubt. Peut-etre, perhaps.

Le ferez-vous? Peut-être. Will you do it? Perhaps.

Denial. Non, ne, ne pas, ne point, no, not. En voulez-vous? Non. Will you have some? No. N'en voulez-vous pas? Will you not have some? N'y pensez-pas, do not think of it. Il n'ose, he dares not.

2°. Some denote the order and rank, as: premièrement, first, secondement, secondly, &c. d'abord, at first, après, after, avant, auparavant, before, &c.

D'abord il faut éviter de faire le mal, ensuite il faut faire le bien, we ought, first, to avoid doing evil,

afterwards we ought to do good.

3°. Others denote the place, or the distance, viz. for the place; où, where, ici, here, là, there, deçà, on this side, deld, on that side, par-tout, every- where, &c. Venez ici, come hither, allez là, go thither; for the distance; près, near, loin, far, proche, nigh, &c. Venez plus près, come nearer, allez plus loin,

go farther.

4°. There are some that denote the time, either in a determinate, or in an indeterminate manner. Those denoting a determinate time are, for the present: maintenant, now, à présent, at present, aéluellement, this moment, &c. for the past: hier, yesterday, avant-hier, the day before yesterday, autrefois, formerly, &c.; and for the future: demain, to-morrow, après demain, the day after to-morrow, &c. On s'en affligeoit hier; à présent on en rit; on n'y pensera plus demain. They grieved at it yesterday, now they laugh at it, to-morrow it will no longer be thought of. Those denoting an indeterminate time, are; souvent, often, d'ordinaire, most times, quelquefois, sometimes, matin, morning, tôt, soon, tard, late, &c. Venez plus souvent, come oftener, cela arrive d'ordinaire, that generally happens.

5°. Some express quantity, as: peu, little, assez, enough, trop, too much, beaucoup, much, tunt, so much, &c. Il parle beaucoup, et réfléchit peu, he

talks much, and reflects little.

6. Lastly, some express comparison, as: plus, more, moins, less, aussi, so, autant, as much, &c. plus sage, aussi sage, moins sage.

EXERCISE.

Have you ever read in Racine the famous scene of Phædra's delirium? Yes, I have, and I own it is one of the dre delire la(lu) awouer que finest of the French theatre. Perhaps you will discover, on a second perusal of la Fontaine's fables, beauties which letture f. (de)

you have not perceived on the first. The man who affercevoir ind-6 à is willing to do good is not stopped by any obstacle.

Read books of instruction first, and afterwards you \mathbb{R}_3

may pass to those of entertainment. The wicked is. agrément
he goes, agitated with remorse. Conpasser ind-7 wherever que subj-1 tourmenter de

template at a distance the high mountains, if you wish to discover prospects varied and always new. Formerly, edu-(de) site m.

cation was neglected, it is now very much attended to: it is 3 s'occuper 2 en falloir on 1 4

to be hoped that new views will soon be adopted.

adopter ind-7 (de) and coarse criticism generally Rude does greater d'ordinaire grossier himself to exercise it, injury to the person who permits souvent se permettre

than to him who is the object of it. To bestow too much emembellir

bellishment upon a subject frequently betrays a want of judgment and taste. The more ignorant a man is, the less he be-4

lieves himself to be so. croire * ₹ 2 le 1

CHAP. VIII.

OF CONJUNCTIONS.

Thus far we have seen how words are joined together in order to make a sense. Words, thus united, form a sentence, or proposition. The smallest proposition ought to have, at least, two words, viz. the subject and the verb, as: je chante, I sing, vous lisez, you read, Phomme mount, man dies. The verb always contains an attribute, except etre, when it does not mean to exist. The attribute is that which is affirmed of the subject; je chante, I sing, is for je suis chanzant, I am singing; vous lisez, you read, is for vous etes lisant, you are reading. Chantant and lisant are the attributes of those phrases: but the verb has often one regimen and even two, as: je lis une lettre à mon ami, I read a letter to my friend.

The conjunction is a word which serves to connect sentences. When we say: il pleure et rit en meme temps, he cries and laughs at the same time, this word et unites the first senience il pleure with the second il rit. Likewise, when we say: Pierre et Paul rient, Peter and Paul laugh, the word et unites these two sentences into one, Pierre rit and Paul rit.

There are different kinds of conjunctions, and these kinds vary in proportion to the wants of the

mind. For, the mind may want

10. To unite two nouns or two verbs, under the same affirmation, or under the same negation, and it then makes use of et for the affirmation: la science et la vertu sont estimables, science and virtue are estimable; and of ni for the negation: il ne boit ni ne mange, he neither eats nor drinks. These are called copulative.

OBSERVATION. We often find et instead of ni in negative propositions, but it is incorrect. In this line: je ne connoissois pas Almanzor et l'amour, it would have been better to have said ni l'amour, I

knew neither Almanzor nor love.

2°. To denote an alternative or distinction between objects, and it makes use of ou, ou bien, soit, soit que, tantôt, &c. Entrez ou sortez, either come in or go out: soit dans la bonne, soit dans la mauvaise fortune, either in good or bad fortune: tantôt il rit, tantôt il pleure, he sometimes laughs and sometimes cries. These are the alternative or disjunctive.

3°. To restrict an idea, and it makes use of sinon, quoique, encore que, à moins que. Je n'ai autre chose à vous dire, sinon que je le veux, I have nothing more to say to you, only that I will have it so: cela sera, quoique vous disiez, that shall be, whatever you

may say. These are the restrictive.

4°. To express the opposition of an object to another, and it makes use of mais, cependant, néanmoins, pourtant, toutefois, bien que. Il est bon, mais il est bien étourdi, he is good, but he is very giddy. These are the adversative.

5°. To express a condition, and it makes use of si, sinon, à moins que, pour vu que, à condition que, &c. Tout est perdu, si vous ne vous hâtez de venir, all is lost, if you do not hasten to come: vous réussirez, pour vu que vous agissiez avec vigueur, you will sue-

ceed, provided you act with vigour. These are the

hypothetical or conditional.

69. To express consent, and it makes use of à la vérité, à la bonne heure, quand, quand même, non que, quoique, encore que, &c. A la vérité, c'est étonnant, mais ce n'est pas moins sûr, it is, indeed, very astonishing, but it is not the less certain: vous le pensez ainsi, à la bonne heure, you think so, very well! These are the concessive.

7°. To explain something, and it makes use of savoir, comme, c'est-à-dire. La terre est divisée en quatre parties, savoir: l'Europe, l'Asie, l'Afrique, & l'Amérique, the earth is divided into four parts, viz.. Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. These are the explicative.

EXERCISE ..

Gold and silver are metals less useful than iron. I or argent (de) fer like neither the flatterer nor the wicked. You may choose aimer flatter méchant choisir either a happy mediocrity, or a sphere more clevated, but

exposed to many storms. I shall not yet pass to the peru-

bien de orage

sal of the authors of the second class, unless you advise ordre conseiller subj-1 me to it. That is certainly a superb picture; nevertheless, there is some incorrectness of design. Although Homer, incorrection pl.

according to Horace, slumbers at times, he is,

sommeiller subj-1 quelquefors

nevertheless, the first of all poets. We have within us two

faculties, seldom united, viz. imagination and judgment.

8°. To express relation or parity between two propositions, and it makes use of comme, ainsi, de même, ainsi que, aussi-bien que, autant que, si que, &c. Il n'est pas si riche qu'on le dit, he is not so rich as he is reported to be. These are the comparative.

90. To express augmentation or diminution, and it makes use, for augmentation, of d'ailleurs, outre que, de plus, au surplus. Rien de plus amusant que

Phisroire: d'ailleurs, rien de plus instructif, nothing more entertaining than history; besides, nothing more instructive: and for diminution, of au moins, du moins, pour le moins. Il faut, pour le moins, cennoires les principes généraux d'une langue, avant de se méler de l'enseigner, we ought, at least, to know the general principles of a language, before we take upon ourselves to teach it. These are the augmentative and the diminutive.

thing, and it makes use of ear, comme, parce que, puisque, pourquoi, pour, afin que, &cc. Fujez l'oisiveté, parce qu'elle est la mère de tous les vues, avoid idleness, because it is the mother of all vices. These are the causal.

or, donc, par conséquent, c'est pourquoi. Il faut aimer ce qui est aimable; or la vertu est aimable, donc il faut aimer la vertu. We ought to love what is amiable; now, virtue is amiable, therefore, we ought to love virtue.

12°. To express some circumstance of order or time, and it makes use of quand, lorsque, pendant que, &c. tant que, depuis que, avant que, dès que, aussitit que, à peine, après, enfin, &c. A peine nous finissions, qu'il entra, we had hardly done, when he came in. These are the conjunctions of order and time.

13°. To express the passage from one circumstance to another, and it makes use of or, en effet, au reste, à propos, après tout. A propos, je vous dirai, now I think of it, I will tell you: au reste, on n'y pense plus, however, they think no more of it.

EXERCISE.

The most beautiful flowers last but a moment: thus

ne awair que instant de durée

human life passes avay. Mad. de Sévigné's letters are

2 1 de

models of elegance, simplicity and taste; besides, they are replete with interesting anecdotes. I shall always advise you

to take the ancients as your guides; at least, do not quit,

but seldom the way they have traced for you. Since affecne que tracer tation is a fault, avoid every thing that may have the apdéfaut pouvoir pearance of it. We ought to practise what the gospel devoir ind-1 commands us: now, it commands us, not only to forseulement de pargive our enemies, but also to love them. After we had donner à examined that singular effect, we enquired rechercher ind-3 en causes. None but an Englishman y avoir ne que qui pouvoir subi-1 judge of Shakespear: for, what foreigner is sufficiently jurer versed in the English language to discover the sublime beau-1 pour ties of that author?

The above conjunctions are not attended with any kind of difficulty; they need only to be known. But it is not so with the conjunction que, which we may call conductive, as it serves to conduct the sense to its complement. It is always placed between two ideas, the first of which must always be followed by another, in order to complete the sense, as; il est important que tout le monde soit instruit, it is of great importance that every body should be well instructed. It differs from the relative pronoun que, in as much as it can never be turned into lequel, laquelle. The conjunction que must be repeated before every member of a period: this rule is almost without exception.

The conjunction que also serves, 1° to complète a comparison. L'Asic est plus grande que l'Europe; Asia is larger than Europe. 2°. To express a restriction in negative sentences. On ne parle que de la nouvelle vistoire, they talk of nothing but the new victory. When thus used, we first present a negation, from which we draw the thing, in order to present it, in an affirmative sense, exclusively to any

other.

The conjunction que also serves to give more force and grace, more vivacity and precision to sentences, 10. In elliptical turns: qu'il vive! may he live!

qu'il soit heureux! may he be happy! that is: je sou-

haits qu'il vive, I wish he may live, &c.

2°. When it is put for à moins que, avant que, sans que, as: cela ne finira pas qu'il ne vienne, there will be no end to it uniess he come.

30. When it is used instead of dès que, aussitét que, si, as: qu'il fasse le moindre excès, il est malade, if he

but indulge in a little excess, he is ill.

4°. When it is put for jusqu'à ce que, as: attendez qu'il vienne, wait till he come.

5°. When for pour juoi, as: que ne se corrige-t-il?

Why does he not reform?

60. When put for et si, as: que si vous me dites,

and if you should tell me.

7°. When instead of comme and parce que, as; rempli qu'il étoit de ses préjugés, il ne voulut convenir de rien, full as he was of his prejudices, he would not agree to any thing.

8°. When it is put for *combien*, and then it denotes admiration and the sudden emotions of the soul, as: que Dieu est grand! how great is the Almighty! que

je le hais! how I hate him! &c.

We shall speak of some other uses in Chap. X.

Another very frequent use of this conjunction is to put it for comme, parce que, puisque, quand, quoique, si, &c. when to prepositions beginning with these words, others are added under the same regimen, by means of the conjunction et, as: si l'on aimoit son pays, et qu'on désirât sincèrement sa gloire, on se conduirait de manière, &c. if we loved our country, and sincerely wished its glory, we should act so as, &c. Lorsqu'on a des dispositions et qu'on s'applique, on fait des progrès, with good dispositions and application, one makes some progress.

EXERCISE.

May they understand at last that without internal .

avec soi-même 2

peace there is no happiness. Never write before you have subj-7 examined thoroughly the subject which you propose sous toutes ses faces se proposer

to treat. Let him but hear the least noise, his terrified imagination presents to him nothing but Ð monsters. que (de) that question, before 1 work ean (ne) pouvoir subj-1. approfondir Why does he not take advantage of his youth with you. profiter in order to study? Full of self-love as he is, expect pour good from him. nothing How beautiful is that rien (de) cultivated nature! brilliant and pompously hozu pompeusement adorned by the care of man! deep philoso-Had paré 2. (de) phers presided at the formation of languages, and had présider ind-6. à

they carefully examined the elements of speech, not only avec soin discours

in their relations to one another, but also in themselves, it is

rapports entr'eux

not to be doubted that languages would offer principles étre douteux subj-2.

more simple, and at the same time, more luminous.

GOVERNMENT OF CONJUNCTIONS.

The conjunctions which unite sentences to one another are followed, either by the infinitive, the indicative, or the subjunctive.

Those that are followed by an infinitive, are: 1°. those which are distinct from prepositions only, because they are followed by a verb, as: il faut se reposer après avoir travaillé, one ought to rest after having laboured. 2°. Those which have the preposition de after them, as: je travaille afin de vous surpasser, I work that I may surpass you.

RULE. In general, we are to use conjunctions with an infinitive, only when that infinitive relates to the subject of the principal verb.

EXAMPLES.

Nous ne pouvons trahir la vérité sans nous rendre compables, We cannot betray truth without rendering ourselves guilty. Louited le jeu, de peur d'en prendre le goût, Abstain from gaming, lest you should take a liking to it.

We

We have said in general, because we think that it may relate to the regimen, when there is no equivocation. This sentence: je vous conseille de ne vous appliquer à l'étude qu'après avoir rempli les devoirs de votre place, is very correct, although the infinitive avoir rempli relates to the regimen vous.

EXERCISE:

They were going to spend a few days in town, only that ne que they might find themselves again with more pleasure in their

charming solitude. Many persons work, only in order to

acquire consideration and riches: but the honest

(de)

sensible man spends so much time in study, only

3 1 ne employer tant de à que

to be useful to his fellow-creatures.

I shall make semblables.

known to you the plot which your enemies have laid in dévoiler irane f. our dir darkness, in order to warn you against their artifices. ténebres prémunir

Those that govern the indicative are: bien entenduque, à condition que, à la charge que, de même que, ainsi que, aussi bien que, autant que, non plus que, outre que, parce que, attendu que, vu que, puisque, c'est pour cela que, lorsque, dans le temps que, pendant que, tandis que, durant que, tant que, peut-être que, to which may be added comme, comme si, quand, pourquoi, &cc. These conjunctions are followed by the indicative, because the principal sentence which they are uniting with the incidental one, expresses the affirmation in a direct, positive and independent manner

firmation in a direct, positive and independent manner.

Observation. There are six conjunctions, the use of which varies according to the meaning expressed by the principal sentence, viz: si non que, si ce n'est que, de sorte que, en sorte que, tellement que, de manière que. We say: je ne lui ai répondu autre chose, si non que j'avois exécuté ses ordres, I made him no other answer except that I had executed his orders; because the first verb expresses a positive affir-

mation. But we ought to say: je ne veux autre chose, si non que vous travailliez avec plus d'ardeur, I desire nothing else, but that you should work with greater ardour.

EXERCISE.

When you have a more extended knowledge of geometry and algebra, I shall give you a few lessons on astronomy

quelque de form your mind, heart and taste while you

and optics. Form your mind, heart and taste vohile you optique are still young. Do not keep truth captive, though you should draw upon you a cloud of enemies. I will give s'attirer * nuée f.

you this fine picture, upon condition that you will keep it as a testimony of my friendship.

The conjunctions which govern the subjunctive are: soit que, sans que, si ce n'est que, quoique, jusqu'à ce que, encore que, à moins que, pourvu que, supposé que, au cas que, avant que, non pas que, afin que, de peur que, de crainte que, and a few others. They are followed by the subjunctive, because they always follow a principal sentence implying doubt, wish, ignorance.

EXERCISE.

You know too well the value of time, to make it necespour que être sary to tell you to make a good use of it. Study only great models, lest those which are but middling should médiocre your taste, before it be entirely formed. subj-1. gáter subj-1. I make not the least doubt that your method ne douter vallement well known. Several phenosucceed, provided it be subj-1.

men's of nature are easy to be explained, supposing the principle of universal gravitation to be true.

subi-1.

CHAP. IX.

OF INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections are small words which serve to express the various sentiments and sudden emotions of the soul. They have no fixed place in speech, but show themselves accordingly as the sentiment that produces them comes to manifest itself externally. The only thing to be attended to, is not to place them between words which custom has made inseparable. There are interjections for every sentiment, viz:

For pain and grief: aye! ah! hélas! ouf! mon Dieu! &c.

ha! ké! For fear:

For joy and desire: For aversion: ah! bon! 6!

fi! fi donc! oh oh!

oh! ch! zest! For derision:

For consent: certes; soit; volontiers.

For admiration: 0/1 !

oh! bon Dieu! misérieer de! For assonishment:

oh! allons! courage! For encouragement:

For warning: gure! alerte! holà! tout beau!

chut! hem! hola! he!

For calling: hola! ho!

For silence: chut ! paix! st.

CHAP. X.

GENERAL AND PARTICULAR RULES OF SYNTAX

UPON EACH SORT OF WORDS.

THUS far, we have given no other rules relative to syntax, then those which were necessary to the successive unfolding of ideas. In this, we have followed the march of the human mind; but now, that the pupil has run over the nine sorts of words, that he knows their nature, accidents, and some of their essential functions, in a word, that he is initiated into the mechanism of language, it is time to unfold to his view its grand principles, its most important difficulties, and every thing that can make him thoroughly acquainted with its genius. This is what we intend to do in this and the two following chapters.

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS

On the Exercises of this Chapter.

ro. One is sometimes at a loss how to express, in French, the preposition to before an infinitive: for it is, according to circumstances, rendered either by pour, by \hat{a} , or by de; sometimes even, it is not expressed at all. Before we proceed any further, we will endeavour to remove the difficulty.

When to means in order to, it is expressed, in French, by pour, as: he came to speak to me, il vint

four me parler.

As for the other two cases, there is hardly any fixed rule by which we can distinguish whether we are to use \hat{a} or de: the regimen, which the preceding French verb requires after it, must be our only guide. Thus: he likes to play, will be expressed by, il aime à jouer; he told me to go, by, il me dit d'aller, and he preferred to die, by, il aima mieux mourir. Yet, we have an instance wherein we may know whether we ought to make use of de: it is when the English infinitive may be otherwise expressed by the participle present, preceded by the preposition of, as: he is afraid to see you, il craint de vous voir, because we may say: of sceing you. Nevertheless, from the rules which we have laid down in the preceding chapters, and the exercises which are meant to exemplify them, and in which the learner must, by this time, be pretty well practised, we should hope that this difficulty will be easily got over. To say any more upon the subject here, would be to encroach upon the sules which we intend further to particularize in this chapter, and by the time we have got to the end of it, the learner will know, to a certainty, the right use of \hat{a} and de.

2°. We have seen (page 96) that every verb, in French, except etre, used to express affirmation, contains the attribute. Jaine is for je wis almant, a construction which obtains not in French, but which is

of very great use in English; and whenever we meet with it, we ought to translate it, in French, by the

verb in the present.

This participle is also used in English instead of a substantive, and instead of the present of the infinitive. Hunting, la chasse. He is gone a walking, il est all se promener. Prevent him from doing mischief, empêchez-le de faire du mal. There is a pleasure in silencing great talkers, il y a plaisir à fermer la bouche aux grands parleurs.

It is the same with several other prepositions. In the first instance, it is translated by the substantive, and in the second, by the present of the infinitive. But, sometimes, it must be expressed by the relative qui, with the verb in the indicative, especially when there might be an amphibology in the expression, as: I met them riding post, je les ai rencontrés qui cou-

roient la poste.

At other times, it ought to be expressed by the conjunction que, with the verb in the indicative, or in the subjunctive, as circumstances may require: it is when the participle present is preceded by a possessive pronoun. The fear of his coming vexed us, la crainte qu'il ne vint nous tourmentoit. I doubt his being faithful, je doute qu'il soit fidèle, &c.

3°. When are do, did, will, would, should, can, could, may and might, to be considered as mere signs of tenses, and when are they real verbs? This question is the more difficult to answer as it depends, in a great measure, on the views of the mind. Nevertheless, the following remarks will serve, in some

degree, to illustrate this matter.

ist, There can be no difficulty about do and did: they are mere expletives, denoting interrogation, negation, or merely emphasis, when they are joined to a verb. I do love, j'aime; I did love, j'aimois, or j'aimai. Do I love? aimo-je? Did I love? aimois-je? or aimai-je? I do not love, je n'aime pas. I did not love, je n'aimois pas, or je n'aimai pas. I mall these cases, they are not expressed in l'rench. Rat,

S3

when they are followed by a noun or a pronoun, then they are real verbs and mean faire. Do me that factour, faites-moi ce plaisir. He did it, il le fit, or in short, by any thing else besides the verb with which it is necessarily connected, as: he did more than could have been expected, il fit plus qu'on n'eût pu espérer.

2dly, Will, in the first person singular, is oftener a verb of itself, than an auxiliary, as: I will go out, in spite of you; and then it is rendered by the verb vouloir, je veux sortir, malgré vous : unless it can be contracted into I'll, as: if you have a mind, I'll do it, si vous le désirez, je le ferai. This contraction, however, is a vulgarism: and ought never to be used for shall, but is always equivalent to will, in some shape or other. It is the word in spite that makes it more emphatic than usual in the first example, and it might be rendered into French by the simple future sortirai, or at least, by sortirai bien. In the other persons, and when simply joined to the verbs with which they form an indivisible idea, will is generally a mere sign of the future, as: He will go to the play to night, nous irons ce soir à la comédie. When they are dressed, they will go to church, lorsqu'ils seront habillés, ils iront à l'église. We have said generally, because there are instances in which, even then, it ought to be rendered by vouloir, as: Will you go or not? voulez-vous partir ou non? They will do what they please, ils veulent faire ce qui leur plait. Likewise, when will precedes the word have, followed by a noun or a pronoun, it is to be expressed by vouloir, as: I will have you to go into the country, je veux que vons alliez à la campagne. Here, have is not expressed, but we put que after je veux, because that conjunction is necessary to complete the sense. We also omit it in this sentence : will you have this book? voulez-vous ce livre? the omission being more elegant.

In general, whenever will can be contracted into 'll, it is a more explctive, and not expressed in French; but, when the emphasis is laid upon it, it is a verb

and must be expressed by vouloir.

3dly, The last observation which we have made upon will may very justly be applied to would, which is often, though very improperly, contracted into 'd at the end of a personal pronoun, and is then a mere auxiliary, denoting the conditional. You would do me a great service, or you'd do, &c. vous me rendriez un grand service. I'd rather (for I would rather) set off to-night than to-morrow evening, j'aimerois mieux partir ce soir que demain matin. But, when it is expressive of a person's will, and a kind of emphasis laid upon it, then it is a verb, and is expressed by vou-Surely, you would not condemn him unheard, surement, vous ne voudriez point le condamner sans l'entendre. With regard to its being followed by have, much depends upon circumstances, and many of the niceties of the language must be left to practice and experience. For instance, this sentence: I would have you to go to that man, perhaps he may do you some service, will be rendered by: je vous conseillerois d'aller trouver cet homme, peut-être, &c.

athly, Should is only a sign of the conditional, when it expresses a thing which may happen upon some condition. I should like a country-life, if my affairs would permit me to indulge my inclination, j'aimerois la vie de la campagne, si mes affaires me permettoient de suivre mon goût. But, when it implies duty, obligation, or suitableness to do a thing, it is a verb, and ought to be expressed by devoir. We should never swerve from the path of virtue, nous ne devrious jamais nous écarter du sentier de la vertu.

5thly, Can, could, may and might, are not so difficult as they appear at first sight, because it sedom happens that they are signs of tenses, and that, in almost every instance, there is no impropriety in rendering them by pouvoir. In general, the first two imply a power, a possibility, a capability, &c. and the others, liberty, a desire of doing, &c. The only instance in which could is a sign of the conditional, is when it is followed by the verb wish. I could wish, je désirerois.

The above observations are made to the English

Searner, to whom we are not to teach the nature and use of the auxiliaries in his own language, but the manner of expressing them in French. Of course, we think we have said enough upon the subject, as much depends upon the operations of his mind, in order to make the distinction between expletives and verbs, which is by far easier for him to find out, than for a foreigner to know the right use of the English auxiliaries.

N. B. Do, did, shall, will, &c. are sometimes used elliptically in the answers to interrogative sentences. This construction obtains not in French. We must repeat the verb, accompanied with a pronoun expressive of the idea of the interrogative sentence. Shall you do your exercise to-day? Yes, I shall, ferez vous votre thême aujourd'hui? oui, je le ferai.

δ. I.

OF THE SUBSTANTIVE.

The substantive has three functions in the discourse:

it is subject, apostrophe, or regimen.

The substantive is subject, whenever it is that of which something is affirmed. When we say: Poiseau vole, the bird flies; le lion ne vole pas, the lion does not fly; the substantives oiseau and lion are subjects, because it is affirmed of the first that it flies,

and of the second that it does not fly.

It is to the substantive subject that every thing relates in the sentence. In this: un homme juste & forme n'est ébranlé ni par les clameurs d'une populace injuste, ni par les menaces d'un fier tyran: quand même le monde brisé s'écrouleroit, il en scroit frappé, mais non pas ému, the adjectives, juste and ferme, modify the substantive subject, homme, and all the rest modify un homme juste & ferme.

The substantive is in the form of apostrophe, whenever it is the person or thing addressed to, as: rois, peuples, terre, mer, & vous cieux, écoutez-moi! In this sentence, the substantives rois, peuples, terre, mer,

and cicux, are apostrophe.

Observation. It is only in a strongly marked oratorical impulse that the speech is directed to inanimate beings.

EXAMPLE OF A BEAUTIFUL APOSTROPHE.

ne plus O Hippias! Hippias! I shall nenever again ver see thee again! O my dear Hipand * relentless moi pias! it is I, cruel and relentless, that impitoyable apprendre taught taught thee to despise death. Cruel ind-4. Gods! you prolonged my life, only prolonged prolonger that I might see the death of Hipind-1. only that I, &c. pias! O my dear child, whom I me faire had brought up with so much care, I brought up nourrir shall see thee no more. O dear shade! ind-4. with so, &c. et qui me call me to the banks of the Styx, the coûter ind-4. light grows hateful to me; it is thee shade only, my dear Hippias, that I wish banks grows hateful to see again. Hippias! Hippias! O my dear Hippias! all I now live for, all I . . . is to ne vivre is to pay my last duty to thy ashes. que pour Day rendre ashes cendre

The substantive is regimen, when it is governed by another word: now, a substantive may be governed, either by another substantive, by an adjective, by a verb, or by a preposition, as: la loi de Dieu, the law of God; utile à l'homme, useful to man; aimer son prochain, to love one's neighbour; chez son père, at his father's.

We shall speak in its proper place, of the regimen of adjectives, verbs and prepositions, and confine our-

selves here to what relates to the substantive.

In French, a substantive cannot be governed by another substantive, but by the help of a preposition. this preposition is generally de, as: la difficulté de l'entreprise, the difficulty of the undertaking: but sometimes also, à and pour are made use of, as: l'abandon à ses passions, the giving way to one's passions; le goût pour le plaisir, propensity for pleasure.

GENERAL RULE, Of two substantives, of which

the one is givening and the other governed, it is the governing one that generally goes before the other.

EXAMPLE.

La beauté des sentimens, la violence des passions, la grandeur des événemens, et les succès miraculeux des grandes éfées des héros, tout cela m'entraîne comme une petite fille.—Sévigné.

The beauty of sentiments, the violence of passions, the grandeur of events, and the prodigious successes of the great swords of heroes, all this transports me like a little girl.

OBSERVATION. We shall, in the next chapter, mention those cases in which this order is inverted: we shall only observe here that this same order is not followed in English in two instances; 1°. when two substantives are joined by an s and an apostrophe, placed after the first, thus 's, as: the king's palace. 2°. when the two substantives form a compound word, as: silk-stockings. In these two cases, the substantive governed is put before the governing one.

EXERCISE.

The plants of the gardens, the animals of the wood, the minerals of the earth, the meteors of the sky, must all concur to store the mind with inexhaustible 2 variety!

Nothing was heard but the voarbling of birds, or the soft breath of the zephirs, sporting in the branches of the trees, or the murmur of a lucid 2 rill 1, falling from the rocks, or the songs of the young swains, who attended Apollo.

A smiling boy was at the same time caressing a lap-dog, which is his mother's favourite; besides, it pleases the child.

There are several gold and silver mines in this beautiful country; but

must devoir concourir à concur store with enrichir par inexhaustible puisable nothing . . . but on ne plus que ·breath halcine sporting (which sportse jouer ind-2. tranches rameaux lucid rill cau claire (which fell) falling swains berger attended suivre ind-2

boy enfant
smiling d'un air riant
rous care-sing caresser
ind 2
lat-dog bichon
pleases annuser or
plaire à
there are
plain simple

the inhabitants plain, and happy in their plainness, do not even deign to reckon gold and silver among their riches. among

plainness deign reckon

simplicité daigner

compter parmi

§. II.

OF THE ARTICLE.

We have already established as a general rule, that the article always agrees in gender and number with the substantive which it precedes. We shall here give two more. See Rule I, page 60.

SECOND GENERAL RULE. When the article is used, it ought to be repeated before every one of the substantives, whether subject or regimen.

EXAMPLES.

L'esprit, les graces et Wit, graces and beauty capbeauté nous captivent, tivate us.

L'ignorance est la mère de l'erreur, de l'admiration & des préventions de toute espèce,

Ignorance is the mother of error, admiration and prejudices of all kinds.

EXERCISE.

Innocence of manners, sincerity, manners mœurs * art. obedience and a horror of vice, inhabit region pays this happy region.

The silence of the night, the calmness of the sea, the trembling light of the moon shed on the surface of the water, and the dusky azure of the sky, besprinkled with glittering stars, served to heighten the beauty of the scene.

trembling tremblant shed on répandu sur

sombre dusky besprinkled with parsemé de

heighten rehausser spectacle scene

THIRD GENERAL RULE. The place of article, every time it is used, is always before the substantives; so that, if they be preceded by an adjective, even modified by an adverb, it ought to be placed at the head, but nevertheless, after the prepositions, if there be any.

EXAMPLES.

La plus riche héritière ne fait pas toujours la plus aimable femme,

Dans les beaux jours de la littérature Françoise, on respestoit également la religion & le roi, The richest heiress does not always make the most amiable wife.

In the bright days of the French literature, religion and the king were equally respected.

Exception. The adjective tout, and these qualities: monsieur, madame, monseigneur, displace the article, which, in this case, takes its station between these words and the substantives. We ought to say: tout le monde, monsieur le due, madame la comtesse, monseigneur l'archeve que de, &c.

EXERCISE.

A true poet estimates the happiness and misery of every condition, observes the power of all the passions in all their combinations, and traces the changes of the human mind, as they are modified by various institutions and accidental influences of climate and custom, from the sprightliness of infancy to the despondence of decrepitude.

Almost all the passions which operate with great violence on the mind, and drive it to the most dangerous extremes, concurred in raising and fomenting this unhappy quarrel.

estimates apprécies

as they &c. à mesure que il (sing.) various art. divers custom coutume pl. from depuis sprightliness vivacité despondence abattement operate agir beaucoup de great drive porter raising faire naître fomenting fomenter

GENERAL PRINCIPLE. We ought to use the article before all substantives common, taken in a determinate sense, unless there be another word performing the same office; but it is not to be used before those that are taken in an indeterminate sense.

This being premised, we shall now point out the cases in which we ought to make use of the article.

RULE I. The article essentially accompanies all

substantives common, which denote a whole kind of things, or determinate things.

EXAMPLES.

L'homme se repair trop souvent de chimères,

Les hommes a imagination sont touiours matheureux, L'homme dont vous parlez est

très-instruit,

Man too often feeds himself with chimeras.

Men of a fanciful disposition are always unhappy.

The man you speak of is very learned.

In the first example, the word homme is taken in a general sense; it denotes a collective universality. In the second, les hommes à imagination, denote a particular class only. In the third, I'homme, denotes but one individual, it being restricted by the incidental proposition dont vous parlez.

OBSERVATION. In English, the article is not used before substantives taken in a general sense, as: man was born for society; nor before those denoting a less general class, as: men of genius, women of round understanding; nor again before some substantives which are taken rather in a determinate, than in a general sense, as: I shall go to court this evening.

EXERCISE.

Elegance, the most visible image of fine taste, the moment it appears, is universally admired: men disagree about the other constituent parts of beauty, but they all unite without hesitation to acknowledge the power of elegance.

Hassan, said he, thou art greater than I, and from thee I have at once derived humility and svisdom: I answered, mock not the servant, who is but a worm before thee: life and death are in thy hand, and happiness and misery are the daughters of thy will.

fine délicat the momen: (de) oppears se montrer disagree about différer constituent (which constitute the s'accorder hesitation (by the verb)

at once en même temps mock se moquer servant serviteur who is but ne que 200177 ver are the daughters dependre

Men 2. of superior genius, while 1. they* see 3. the rest of mankind painfully struggling to comprehend obvious truths, glance themselves through * the most remote 2. consequences1, like lightning through * a path that cannot be traced.

The man who lives under an habitual sense of the divine presence, keeps up a perpetual cheerfulness of temper, and enjoys, every moment, the satisfaction of thinking himself in company with his dearest and best of friends.

zuhile tandis que 1 struggling sc tourmenter obvious qui s'offrir d'elles-mêmes glance ils pénètrer d'un coup d'œil lightning foudre tath espace traced on mesurer under sense conviction кеер ир conserver cheer fulness gaîté temper caractère enjoys jouir de of thinking se croire zvith de

RULE II. The article is put before substantives taken in a sense of extract, or denoting only a part of a kind; but it is omitted, if they be preceded by an adjective, or a word of quantity.

EXAMPLES.

Du pain et de l'eau me feroient plaisir, Je vis hier des savans, qui ne pensent pas comme vous,

J'achetai hier beaucoup de

livres, Que de livres j'achetai hier!

you do.
c I bought yesterday many books.
! How many books did I buy

Some bread and water would

I yesterday saw some learned

men, who do not think as

yesterday!

please me.

Observation. Among the words of quantity must be reckoned plus, pas and point, moins, jamais: Il n'y cut jamais plus de lumières, there never were more lights; il y a moins d'habitans à Paris qu'à Londres, there are fewer inhabitants in Paris than in London; je ne manque pas d'amis, I do not want friends.

EXCEPTION. Bien is the only word of quantity that ought to be followed by the article. We say: It a bien de l'esprit, he has a great deal of wit; elle a bien de la grâce, she has a great deal of gracefulness about her.

OBSERVATION. The sense of extract is marked in English by the word *some*, or *any*, either expressed or understood, which answers to *quelques*, a partitive adjective, and consequently to *du*, *des*, which are ele-

gantly used instead of quelques.

These expressions: des petits-maîtres, des sagesfemmes, des petits pátés, &c. are not exceptions, because, in such cases, the articles are so far united with the adjectives, as to form but one and the same word. We ought likewise to say: le propre des belles actions, les sentimens des anciens philosophes, &c. because, in these sorts of expressions, the substantives are taken in a general sense.

EXERCISE.

We could not east our eyes on either shore, without seeing opulent cities, country-houses agreeably situated, lands yearly covered with a golden 2 harvest 1, meadows full of flocks and herds, husbandmen bending under the weight of the fruits, and shepherds who made 1 all the echoes 5 round them 6 repeat 2 the sweet sounds 3 of their pipes and flates 4.

Provence and Languedoc produce oranges, lemons, figs, olives, almonds, cheshuts, peaches, apricots and grapes of an uncommon sweetness.

The man who has never seen this pure light, is as a blind as one who is born blind: he dies with ut naving seen any thing: at most, he perceives but glimmering and false lights, vain shadows and phantoms that have nothing of reality.

Among the Romans, those who we're convinced of having used illicit

could pouvoir ind-2 shore rivage appercevoir seeing "tarly tous les-ans covered with qui te couvrir de flocks and herds tronhusbandmen laboureur bending qui être accablé weight. poids shepherds bergers chalumean pipes round them d'alentour

who is born blind

aveugle-né
having ne avoirinf-2
without ne jamais
any thing rien
at most tout au plus
perceives appercevoir
glimmering sombre
lights lueur
reality réel

used employer pour

 Γ 2

or unworthy means to obtain the commandment, were excluded from it for ever.

Those who govern are like the celestial 2 bodies 1, which have a preat splendour and no rest.

What beauty, sweetness, modesty, and at the same time, what nobleness and greatness of soul!

Themistocles, in order to ruin Aristides, made use of many manauvres, which would have covered him with infamy in the eyes of posterity, had not 3 the eminent services I which he rendered his country 2 blotted out 4 that stain.

means (moyens I with lllicit 2 voies 2 with unworthv 1 ind-2 rvere from it a great beaucoup de splendour noiest (that have no rest) repos nuhat que de relie perdre made use of many uniployer bien covered with cond-3 de infamy opprobre had not si rendered ind-3 à blotted out effacer

cond-3

tache

The consequences of great passions are blindness of mind and depravation of the heart.

Noblemen should never forget that their high birth imposes great duties

on * them. RULE III. The article is put before proper names

of countries, regions, rivers, winds and mountains. EXAMPLES.

la Méditerranée in sud, la Suisse et la Savoie a l' st, les Pays-Bas au nord, et l'océan à l'ouest.

La Tamise, le Rhone, l'aqui-Ion, les Alpes, le Cantal.

La France a les Pyrennées et France is bounded on the south by the Pyrences and the Mediterranean, on the east by Switzerland and Savoy, on the north by the Notherland, and on the west by the ocean.

should devoir ind-1

stain

The Thames, the Rhone, the north wind, the Alps, the

Observation. We say, by apposition: le mont Parnasse, le mont l'alérien, &c. le fleuve Don, &c. But we say: la montagre de Tarare, &c. la rivière de Scine, &c. We ought not to say: le fleuve du Rhone, but simply: le Rhone.

EXERCISE.

Europe is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; south, by the Mediterranean sea, which separates it from Africa: east, by the continent of Asia; west, by the Atlantic Ocean. It contains the following 2 states 1: on the north, Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Russia: in the middle, Poland, Pryssia, Germany, the United Provinces, the Netherlands, France, Switzerland, Bohemia, Hungary, the British Islest on the south, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Turkey in Europe.

The principal rivers in Europe are: the Wolga, the Don, or Tanals, and the Foristhenes, or Niefer in Muscovy; the Danube, the Rhine and the Elbe, in Germany; the Vistula, or Wezel, in Poland; the Loire, the Seine, the Rhone and the Garonne, in France; the Ebre, the Tagus and the Douro, in Spain; the Po, in Italy; the Thames and the Severn, in England; and the Shannon in Ireland-

The principal mountains in Europe are the Duarns fields between Norway and Sweden; Mont Krapel between Poland and Hangary; the Pyrennean mountains between France

bounded borné on narth nord frozen ocean mer glaciale south sud or midi mediterranean scaMcditerranée east est or orient west ouest or occident Norway Norvège Sweden Suède Denmark Danemare Poland Pologne Prussia Prusse Allemagne Germany Netherlands Pavs-Bas Switzerland Suisse Bohemia Bohême Hungary la Hongrie British isles iles Britanniques Turkey in Turquie en

Tagus Tage

Thanes Times

3

a Cpain; the Alps which divide France and Germany from Italy.

t The bleak north wind never blows here, and the heat of summer is tempered by the cooling zephyrs which come to refresh the air towards the middle of the day.

bleak rigoureux north wind aquilon heat ai deur cooling rafraîchissant to refresh adoucir

EXCEPTIONS. We do not use the article before the names of countries,

1°. When those countries have the names of their capitals, as: Naples est un pays délicieux, Naples is a delightful country.

2°. When those names are governed by the preposition en, as: il est en France, he is in France; il est

en Espagne, he is in Spain.

30. When those names are governed by some preceding noun, as vins de France, French wines; no-

blesse d'Angleterre, the English nobility.

4°. Lastly, when we speak of those countries as of places we come, or are set off from, as: je viens de France, I come from France; j'arrive d'Italie, I am just arrived from Italy. But, in this case, when we speak of the four parts of the world, the present practice is for making use of the article, as: je viens de l'Amérique, j'arrive de l'Asie.

EXERCISE.

Naples may be called a paradise, from its beauty and fertility. From this track 2 some suppose 1 Virgil took the model of his Elysian 2 Fields 1.

from à cause de from this tract que c'est là où some suppose quelques personnes penser

I have been prisoner in Egypt, as a * Phænician: under that name I have long suffered, and under that name I have been set at liberty.

under (it is under)
and under (and it is
under)

He has received wines from France and Spain, silks from Italy, oil from Provence, wool from England. We set sail from Holland, to go to set sail partie the Cape of Good Hope.

I was but just arrived from Russia, 1 was but just ne faire when I had the misfortune to lose que my father.

I had set off from America, when set off partir my brother arrived there.

The article is also used before the names of countries, either distant or little known: la Chine, China; le Japon, Japan; le Mexique, Mexico: and before those which have been formed from common nouns: le Haure, le Perche, la Flèche, &c.

OBSERVATION. In English, the article is gene-

rally omitted before names of countries.

Such are the cases in which the article is used before the nouns: we shall now mention those in which it is not used.

RULE I. The article is omitted before nouns common, when, in using them, we do not say any thing on the extent of their signification.

EXAMPLES.

Le sage n'a ni amour ni haine, The wise man has neither love nor hatred.

Ils ont renversé religion, morale, gouvernement, sciences, beaux-arts, en un mot, tout ce qui fait la gloire et la force d'un état, They have overturned religion, morality, government, sciences, fine arts, in a word, every thing which makes the glory and strength of a country.

Hence, we do not put the article before nouns,

1°. When they are in the form of a title or an address, as: preface, preface; livre premier, book the first; chapitre dix, chapter the tenth; il demeure rue Piccadilly, he lives in Piccadilly: quartier St. James, St. James's.

2°. When they are governed by the preposition en, as regarder en pitié, to look with pity; vivre en roi,

to live like, or, as a king.

3°. When they are joined to the verbs avoir or faire, as avoir peur, to be afraid; faire pitié, to look pitiful. See the table at the end of this §.

40. When they are used as apostrophe or interfection, as: courage, soldats, tenez ferme, courage, sol-

diers, stand firm.

5°. When they serve to qualify a noun that precedes them, as, il est quelquefois plus qu'homme, he is sometimes more than man; Monseigneur le Duc d'York, Prince du sang royal d'Angleterre, His royal highness the Duke of York, Prince of the blood royal of England.

6°. The article is not put before the substantive beginning an incidental sentence, which is a reflection upon what has been said, as: tous les peuples de la terre ont une idée plus ou moins devetoppée d'un Etre Suprème; preuve évidente que le piché original n'a pas tout à fait obscurci l'entendement, all the nations of the earth have an idea more or less developed of a Supreme Being; an evident proof that original sin has not totally obscured the understanding.

70. When they are under the government of the words genre, espèce, sorte, and such like, as: sorte de fruit, a sort of fruit; genre d'ouvrage, a kind of

work.

EXERCISE.

The highways are bordered with laurels, pomegranutes, jessamines, and other trees which " are " always green, and always in bloom, The mountains are covered with flocks, which yield a fine wool which * is * sought after by all the known 2 nations 1 of the world.

The fleets of Solomon made, under the conduct of the Phoenicians, frequent voyages to the land of Ophir and Tharsis (of the kingdom of Sophala, in Ethiopia) whence they returned at the end of three years, laden with gold, silver, ivery, precious?

highways	chemin
with	de
laurels	lauriers
pomegranates	grena-
	diers
in blocm	fleurir
vicid	fournir
20001	laine pl.
sought after re	cherché
•	

fleets	flotte	
made	ind-2	
nuhence	d'où	
returned	revenir	
and	bout	
laden	chargé	

stor is 4 and other kinds of merchandize.

stones

pierre

Costly furniture 2 is not allowed there 1, nor magnificent attire, nor sumptuess feasts, nor gilded palaces.

We considered with pleasure the extensive fields covered with yellow ears of corn, richgifts of the fruitful Ceres.

The greatest part of historians have alledged that HenryIV, was assassinated by the Duke of Gloucester, a prince of a most brutal disposition.

He was in a kind of ecstacy, when he perceived us.

In the most corrupt age, he lived and died as a wise man *.

Are you surprised that the worthiest 2 men 1 are but men, and betray some remains of the weakness of humanity, among the innumerable snares and difficulties which are inseparable from royalty.

He looked pitiful, when we saw him after his disgrace.

Hear then, O nations full of valour! and you, O chiefs, so wise and so united! hear what I have * to * offer you.

Out of this cavern issued, from time to time, a black 2 thick 3 smoke, which made a sort of night at midday. is not allowed there
on n'y souffre ni
furniture meuble
costly précieux
attire ornement
fea:ts repas

extensive vaste
fields campagne
yelloro jaune
eurs épi
the greatest part la
plupart
alleged rapporter

disposition naturel in a kind of comme en

age siècle

betray montrer remains reste snares piége difficulties embarras

he looked pitiful il nous faire pitié

out of de
issued sortir
black and thick et épais
sm he fumée
mid-day milleu du
jour

RULE II. The article is not used, either before nouns preceded by the pronominal adjectives mon, ton,

son, notre, votre, leur, ce, nul, aucun, chaque, sout (used for chaque), certain, plusieurs, tel, or before those which are preceded by a cardinal number, without any relation whatever.

EXAMPLES.

Nos mœurs mettent le prix à Our manners set a value to nos richesses, our riches.

Toute nation a ses loix,

Each nation has its laws. Cent ignorans doivent-ils Are a hundred blockheads to l'emporter sur un homme insget the advantage of one truit? learned man?

EXERCISE.

That good father was happy in his children, and his children were happy in him.

These imitative 2 sounds 1 are the integral parts of all languages, and as their * fundamental basis.

Every man has his foibles, his moments of humour, even his irregularities.

Each plant has virtues which are peculiar to it, and the knowledge 2 of which I could not but be infinitely useful.

In all his instructions, he is careful to remember that grammar, logic and rhetoric are three sisters that ought never to be disjoined.

être fondu of and as et ils en sont cemme

are the integral parts

peculiar propres lui to it could cond-t not but be ne que

he is careful to remember ne point perdre de vue ought on devoir ind 2 to be disjoined séparer

Rule III. Proper names of deities, men, animals, towns and particular places, are without article, but they take it when they are used in a limited sense.

EXAMPLES.

Dieu a crée le ciel et la terre. God has made heaven and earth.

Jupiter was the first of the Jupiter étoit le premier des Dieux.

Bucephalus was Alexander's Bucéphale étoit le cheval d'Alexandre.

Rome is a city of great beau-Rome est une ville d'une grande beauté, ty.

But we ought to say: le Dieu des Chrétiens, the God of Christians; le Dieu de paix, the God of peace; le Jupiter d'Homère, Homer's Jupiter; le Bucéphale d'Alexandre, Alexander's Bucephalus; l'ancienne Rome, ancient Rome; la Rome moderne, modern Rome.

If, in imitation of the Italians, we use the article before the names of painters and poets of that nation, except *Michel-Ange* and *Raphaël*, it is because the expression is elliptical, the words *peintre*, *poète*, or *seigneur*, being understood.

EXERCISE.

Jupiter, son of Saturn and Cibele or Ops, after having deposed his father from the throne, divided the paternal * inheritance with his two brothers, Neptune and Plato.

On a dispute, at a feast of the gods, between Juno, Pallas and Venus, for the preeminence of beauty, Jupiter not being able to bring them to an agreement, referred the decision to Paris, a shepherd of mount Ida, with directions that a golden apple should be given to the fairest. Paris

God said: let there * be light, and there * was light.

assigned to Fenus the golden * re-

ward *.

The Apollo di Belvidere and the Venus di Medicis, are precious remains of antiquity.

May and September are the two finest months of the year in the south of France.

The god of Abraham, Isaac and Jacob, was the only true God.

deposed chasser divided en partager inheritance héritage

on dans
at a feast qu'il y eut
being able pouvoir
to bring to an agreement accorder
referred renvoyer
directions ordre
that a golden apple, &c.
to give a golden apple
to
assigned adjuger la

(light be and light was)

reavard

Unis

prix

OBSERVATION. The English are sometimes at a loss how to translate into French the a or an which precedes the substantive following the verb etre: but there will be no difficulty, if they examine whether that substantive ought to be rendered in French by an adjective, or whether the substantive be taken adjectively. Thus, I am a Frenchman, I am a prince, are to be translated by je suis François, je suis prince. But should the English substantive preserve its nature, then the a or an ought to be expressed by the adjective un placed before the substantive. I am a Frenchman of an illustrious family, I am a very unfortunate prince, are translated thus: je suis un François d'illustre maison, je suis un prince bien malheureux; for, in this instance, François and prince are determinate, and consequently, ought to be preceded by a word expressive of that determination, and performing the office of article. For this reason we put un before the noun which follows the verb etre, preceded by the demonstrative pronoun ce.

OBSERVATION. We have said, that, in French, we do not use the article before substantives which serve to qualify a preceding noun; but, in English, the article the is sometimes used, and oftener a or an, which corresponds to our adjective un, as: Telemachus, the son of Ulysses, king of Ithaca. The Duke of

York, a prince of the royal family.

As the use of the article is one of the most difficult things in our language, we here subjoin a comparative table, in which the same words are used, according to circumstances, either with or without the article.

TABLE.

With the article. The writings of Cicero are full of the soundest 2 ideas 1.

Rid yourself of the prejudices se défaire

of childhood.

The different kinds of animals that are upon the carth.

Without the article. The writings of Cicero are

full of sound 2 ideas 1. Have you no prejudice with

regard to this question?

There are different kinds of unimals upon the earth.

With the article.
He enters into the details of the rules of a good grammar.
He seeks for circumlocutions.
chercher de désour

He charges his memory with the verses of Virgil and the phrases of Cicero.

Essays supported by strong 2 discours soutenu

expressions 1.

He has compiled precepts of recueillir pour language and of morality.

Make use of the tokens we se servir signe (doni)

agreed upon *.

The choice of studies, proper, &c.

Knowledge has always been connoissance pl.

the object of the esteem, the praise and admiration of

The riches of the mind can only * be acquired by study.

ne que

The gifts of fortune are uncertain. fragiles

The connection of proofs enchainement preuve makes them please and perqu'elles

suade.
It is by meditation upon what

we read that we acquire fresh 2 knowledge 1.
connoissance pl.

The advantages of memory.

Without the article.

He enters into a long detail of frivolous 2 rules 1.

He seeks for wide 1 circumlong

locations 2 in order to explain the simplest 2 things 1.

He loads his memory with insipid 3. verses 1. and phrases. 2.

Essays supported by lively 1 expressions 2.

A collection of precepts in language and morals.

We are obliged to use some

de

exterior 2 signs 1, in order

to make ourselves under
nous

en-

stood. tendre

He has made a choice of books, which are, &c.

It is an object of esteem, of ce

praise and admiration.

There is in Peru a prodigile Pérou ous abundance 1 of useless 3 riches!

Gifts of fortune.

There is in this book an administrate connection of solid 2 proofs 1.

It is by meditation that we acquire fresh! knowledge 2. nouveau

There are different kinds of memory.

With the article. The memory of facts is the most showy. brillant.

The aim of good masters

should be to cultivate the devoir ind-1de mind and reason of their pupils.

We should propose difficulties, on ne devoir ind-1

only * to make truth2 trique pour triumphi. ompher

The taste of mankind is liable homme

to great changes. He has no need of the lesson

avoir besoin you wish to give him. France, Spain, England, &c.

The island of Japan.

He comes from China. He arrives from America. The extent of Persia.

He is returned from the East Indies, from Asia, &c. He lives in Peru, in Japan, in the Indies, in Jamuica.

The politeness of France. The circumference of Engiand.

The interest of Spain. The invention of printing is attributed to Germany.

He comes from French Flan-

ders.

Without the article. H chas only a memory of facts.

The memory of mind and reason is more useful han the other kinds of memory.

He has made a collection of difficulties, of which he seeks the solution.

Society of chosen 2 men 1.

He has no need of lessons.

Kingdom of France, of Spain, of England, &c. Island of Candia. He comes from Poland. He arrives from Italy. He is gone to Persia.

He is returned from Spain, from Persia, &c He lives in Italy, in France, in London, in Avignon, &c.

The fashions of France. The horses of England.

The wines of Spain. The empire of Germany is divided into a great number of states.

He comes from Flanders.

OBSERVATIONS. 10. The English make use of a or an, before the nouns of measure, weight, and things bought, as: wheat is sold for a crown a bushel, butter sells for sixpence a pound, wine sold yesterday for

forty crowns a hogshead, 'tis more than a groat a bottle. But, in French, we ought to make use of the article and not of the adjective un, as: le bled se vend un écu le hoisseau, le heurre se vend six sous la livre, le vin se vendit hier quarante écus le muid, c'est plus de quatre sous la houteille.

When speaking of time, a or an is expressed, in French, by the preposition par, as: so much a week,

tant par semaine.

2°. In English, a is sometimes put between the pronoun which serves for the admiration and the substantive that accompanies it, as: what a beauty! but, in French, the adjective un is never expressed, and we

say: quelle beauté!

3°. In English, when the adverbs more and less are repeated to express a comparison, they must be preceded by the article, as: the more difficult a thing is, the more honourable. But, in French, the article is omitted, and we say: plus une chose est difficile, plus elle est honorable.

That nothing may be omitted on this subject, we

here subjoin a

TABLE

OF NOUNS CONSTRUED WITHOUT EITHER PRONOUN OR PREPOSITION. PRECEDED BY A VERB OF WHICH THEY ARE THE COMPLEMENT.

Acioir.

To be cold Avoir faim Avoir froid To be hungry Avoir soif Avoir chaud To be warm To be thirsty To ach Avoir mal Avoir dessein To intend To want Avsir honte Avoir besoin To be asham-Avoir part au To share ed Avoir coulume To use to gâteau the booty To pity Avoir envie T_0 have Avoir pitié mind Avoir compas- To have mer-Avcir droit To have 51012 cy right, &c.

Chercher.

Circher for To seek for Chercher mal To hunt for tune heur misfortune

Courir.

Vourir fortune To stand a Courir risque To run the

Demander.

Demander To ask satis-Demander To ask justice raison faction justice Demander To ask for Demander To pray for vengeance vengeance quartier quarter To ask par-Demander Toask advice, Demander grace don avis &c.

Dire.

Dire vrai To speak truth Dire matines To say matina Dire fume To speak false Dire vepres To say vespers, &c.

Donner.

Donner prise To give a hold Donner cau- To give bail Donner jour To appoint a tion day quit- To give a re-Donner To give word Donner parole tance ceipt To give adat- To strike at Donner avis Donner vice teinte beau To give fair Donner play, &c.

Echapper.

Il l'a échappé belle He had a narrow escape Entendre.

Entendre rai- To underson stand reason
Intendre rail- To take a intendre fi- Tobesly, cunleric joke nesse ning, &c.

Faire.

Faire vie qui To live with-Fairerefloxion To reflect To make one dure in compass Faire honte ashamed Faire bonne To live well chère Faire honneur To do honour Faire envie Faire plaisir To please Toraise envy Faire alliance To make an Faire peur To frighten alliance Faire vas de To value one Faire argent To make moquelqu'un Faire marché To make a de tout ncy of every thing bargain sem- To pretend To provide Faire proci-4. ant 5/9%

(221)							
	Faire route Faire face	To face	1 É	To face To make dif- ficulty, &c.			
	Gagner.						
	Gagner pays	To scamper away		To get much, &c.			
		Mic	ttre.				
	Mettre ordre		Mettre fin	To put an end			
	,	Par	ler.				
	Parler vrai Parler bon	To speak truth To speak good	Parler raison				
	sens	sense	Parler Latin, François, &c.	To speak La- tin, French,			
		Por					
	Porter envie Porter coup Porter mal- heur	To bear envy To prejudice To bring ill luck	Porter témoi- gnage Porter bonheur Porter com-	To bear witness To bring good luck To feel compassion, &c.			
Prendre.							
	Prendre garde Prendre sé- ance Prendre congé Prendre lan- gue	To take care To take one's seat To take have To get intelligence	decine Prendre con- seil	To have patience To take physic To take counsel To take a liking, &c.			
		Ren	dre	ming, acti			
	Rendre service Rendre visite	To do service To pay a visit	Rendre amour	for love			
	Tenir.						
	Tanie Areals	To hour and	T	— .			

Tenir parole To keep one's Tenir prison To keep priword Tenir bon To hold out Tenir ferme To stard it,

About some other particulars, see my Discours sur l'article.

§. III.

OF THE ADJECTIVE.

T.

OF THE ADJECTIVE WITH THE ARTICLE.

RULE. Adjectives taken substantively, are, as substantives common, accompanied by the article, if the use made of them require it.

EXAMPLE.

Les fous inventent les modes, et les sages s'y conforment, the wise conform to them.

RULE II. When a noun is accompanied by two adjectives expressing opposite qualities, the article ought to be repeated before every adjective.

EXAMPLE.

Les vieux et les nouveaux solders dats sont remplis d'ardeur, ll faut fréquenter la bonne compagnie, et fair la mau-

vaise,

OBSERVATION. This rule ought to be strictly attended to, when the qualities expressed by the adjectives are opposite: but those qualities may be either nearly synonimous, or merely different, without being opposite. In the first instance, the article is not repeated, as: le sage & pieux Fénélon, the wise and pious Fénélon: in the second, it is perhaps better to repeat it, as: le sensible & Pingénieux Fénélon, the sensible and ingenious Fénélon.

Rule III. The article is used before the adjec-

RULE III. The article is used before the adjective which is joined to a proper name, either to express its quality, or to distinguish the person spoken of from

those who might bear the same name.

EXAMPLES.

Le sublime Bossuet, le vertueux Fénélon, le tendre Racine,
The sublime Bossuet, the virtuous Fénélon, the tender Racine,
Louis le gros,
Louis le juste,
Henri le grand,
Louis the fat.
Louis the juste,
Henry the great.

OBSERVATION. The adjective which is joined to a proper name, either precedes, or follows that name. If it precede it, it expresses a quality which may be common to many; if it follow it, it expresses a dis-

tinctive quality. These two expressions: Le savant Varron, and Varron le savant, do not convey the same meaning: in the first, we merely give to Varron the quality of savant; in the second we give to understand that there are several persons of the name of Varron, and that the one we mean is distinguished for his learning.

RULE IV. When of an adjective in the comparative degree, we mean to make a superlative relative, we place the article before that comparative, and then, if the adjective be placed before the substantive, the article serves for both; if after, the article is to be

repeated before each.

EXAMPLES.

Les plus habiles gens font quelquefois les plus grossières fautes,

Les gens les plus habiles font quelquefois les fautes les plus grossières.

The cleverest men commit sometimes the grossest blunders.

EXERCISE.

The *learned* of antiquity, were they to come to life again, would be much astonished at the extent of our knowledge.

The ignorant have, in a * strong dose of presumption, what they want in real science, and that is the reason they are admired by fools.

The wise man * preserves the same tranquillity of mind in good or bad fortune.

The man who is jealous of his reputation frequents good and shuns bad company.

Grand and strong thoughts always were the fruit of genius.

The great Corneille astonishes by beauties of the first order, and by faults of the worst taste. If the tender vere they to come again
si revenir
life monde
voould be astonished at
étonner de

they ceant il manquer à and that ce the reason ce qui fait que they are, &c. say, the fools admire them.

In French the substantive must be joined to the first adjective.

shuns fusc

Racine does not always rise so high, at least, he bears himself well, and possesses the art of always interesting the heart.

It has been said of the Telemachus of the wirtuous Fénélon, that it is the most useful 2. present 1. the muses have made to man; for, could the happiness of mankind be produced by a poem, it would be by that.

The more we read the fables of the good and artless la Fontaine, the more we are convinced that they are the book of all ages and the manual of the man of taste.

It is only under the reign of Louis the just (XIII) that good taste began to show itself in France; but it is under that of Louis the great that it was carried to perfection

The most still 2, water 1, often conceals the most dangerous 2, abyss. 1,

rise s*élever bears himself well se soutenir possesses avoir

it on

present don
man pl.
could si pouvoir ind-2
be produced by naître de
would naître, repeared
cond-1
the more plus
we on
artless naïf
we we convinced on se
convaincre

it is only ne que

show itself se montrer

carried porter à tranquille abyss gouffre

H.

The pronominal adjectives mon, ton, son, notre, wetre, leur, placed before the comparative adverbs, perform the function of the article, and consequently raise the comparative to the degree of superlative relative, as: c'est mon meilleur ami, he is my best friend; that is, c'est le meilleur de mes amis, he is the best of my friends.

III.

RULE. Adjectives in the comparative, or superlative, are regulated by the same laws as adjectives in the positive. Hence, we ought to say: c'est la contume des peuples les plus barbares, et celle des plus civilisis, &c. It is the custom of the most barbarous, and that of the most civilized people, &c. C'est une des plus belles femmes de Londres, she is one of the finest women in London; since we should say in the positive: c'est les contume des peuples barbares, et celle des civilisés, &c. itis the custom of barbarous and that of civilized people, &c.: c'est une des belles femmes de Londres, she is one of the fine women in London. Girard and Condillac would have us say: c'est une des femmes des plus belles de Londres, but they are wrong, since we cannot say, in the positive: c'est une des femmes des belles de Londres.

Observation. The superlative relative sometimes relates to a substantive not expressed, but understood, as: *Phiver est la plus triste des saisons*, winter is the dullest of the seasons; a happy turn which

unites elegance with precision.

IV.

Observation 1. When an adjective serves to qualify several substantives of things, these substan-

tives are either as subject, or as regimen.

If as subject, the adjective is always in the plural, as: le travail, la patience, la fermeté et le courage joints ensemble, le firent triompher de ses ennemis, labour, patience, firmness and courage joined together, made him triumph over his enemies.

If as regimen, the adjective agrees with the last only, as: Il avoit la bouche et les yeux ouverts; il avoit les yeux et la bouche ouverte; he had his eyes and

mouth open.

OBSERVATION II. There is a difficulty in the French language upon which grammarians do not agree; it is with respect to the noun followed by several adjectives expressing sorts of the same kind. Some will have the substantive to be put in the plural, while each adjective remains in the singular. I have long held the same opinion; but, after a serious attention on this subject, I have adopted the opinion of those who reject this construction, as contrary to the rules of syntax. For, although adjectives are by their nature subordinate to the substantives, of which they ought to take the accidents and forms, yet the noun is far from acknowledging that servility: the adjectives which follow it have no right to enforce upon it the law of

agreement in number, its independency rejecting it altogether. Thus this sentence: les langues Françoisc & Angloise sont fort cultivées, is not French; we ought to say: la langue Françoise, & l'Angloise sent fort cultivées.

EXERCISE.

The spectacle of nature in its infinite variety made our purest delight and our squeetest occupation.

Their most agreeable pastime was pastime passe-temps the reading of useful 2 books. 1

Your longest days will always be those which you lose in idleness and luxury.

Our most cruel enemies are the men that flatter us, and our best friends those who tell us of our faults.

Politeness and gentleness disarm the mast insensible and soften the most ferocious heart.

It is to the tenderest and most virtuous mother that I dedicate this book.

It is the work of the most absurd pedant that exists.

Athalia is the most perfect of Racine's tragedies, and Tartuffe the finest of Moliere's comedies.

His impetuosity and courage, long chained, soon surmounted all obstacles.

The imagination and genius of Ariosto, although irregular in their march, yet attach, carry and captivate the reader, who can never be tired of admiring them.

There are in Gessner's idyls, senti-

lose perdre idleness oisiveté luxury mollesse

tell of éclairer sur politeness honnêteté gentleness douceur soften adoucir heart must be placed after the 1st. verb

chained enchainer

be tired se lasser ments and a gracefulness altogether affecting.

affecting touchant

The good taste of the Egyptians, from that time, made them love solidity and naked 2. regularity. 1.

from that time dèslors naked tout nu

OBSERVATION. The same rule ought to be observed with the relative pronoun which serves to unite the incidental phrase; for this reason Fénélon has said: il y a dans la véritable vertu une candeur & une ingénuité à laquelle on ne se méprend point, pourvu qu'on y soit attentif, there is in real virtue a candour and ingenuousness, which we cannot mistake if we will but attend to it.

EXERCISE.

In these climates, the dry and the monsoon mousson rainy monsoons divide the year beween them.

The dry and the monsoon mousson divide between them see partager

Custom has introduced a variety of relations in the use of the adjective bon, which well deserves to be noticed. We say of a woman: elle a l'air bon, meaning, she has an air of goodness; because the adjective bon qualifies the substantive air. But it is not so, when the subject is a thing. We must say: cette poire a l'air bonne, and perhaps better, d'être bonne, because here, the adjective bonne qualifies poire, and not air.

V.

THE PLACE OF THE ADJECTIVES.

Rule I. Before substantives we place the pronominal adjectives, adjectives of number, and in general the following sixteen, viz: beau, bon, brave, cher, chetif, grand, gros, jeune, mauvais, mechant, meilleur, moindre, petit, saint, vieux and vrai.

EXAMPLES.

Mon père, quel homme, plusieurs officiers, grand homme, My father. what man. several officers. great man. Vieille femme, din guinées, sin arbres, &c. Old woman. ten guineas. six trees, &c.

EXCEPTIONS 1°. We ought to except the pronoun quelconque, as: raison quelconque, reason whatever.

2°. The adjectives of number, joined to proper

staines, pronouns, and substantives in quotation and without article, as: George trois, George the third; lui dixième, he the tenth; chapitre dix, chapter the

tenth; page trente, page thirty.

3°. The sixteen adjectives before mentioned, when they are joined by a conjunction to another adjective, which is to be placed after the substantive, as: c'est une femme grande & bien faite, she is a woman tall and well made.

OBSERVATION. In English, two, or even several, adjectives may qualify a substantive, without being joined by a conjunction: but in French, they must be united by a conjunction, as: c'est un homme aimable & poli, he is an amiable well behaved man; except when custom allows the substantive between two adjectives, as: c'est un grand homme sec & robuste, he is a tall raw-boned robust man.

EXERCISE.

Ages have been when a great man was a sort of prodigy produced by an error of nature.

have been il y avoir when où produced enfanter

In almost all nations, the great geniuses that have adorned them were contemporaries. in chez nations peuple adorned illustrer ind-4

Young people, says Horacc, are supple to the impressions of vice, lavish, presumptuous and equally stery and light in their passions: old people, on the contrary, are covetuous, dilatory, timid, ever alarmed about the future, always complaining, hard to please, panegyrists of times pasticensors of the present, and great givers of advice.

people gens souple supple lavish prodigue fiery vif corictuous avare dilatory temporiseur about complaining plaintif hard difficile blease contenter givers donneur

What man was ever satisfied with his fortune, and dissatisfied with his wit?

dissatisfied mécontent

Thirty chambers which have a communication one with another, and

have a communication communiquer cach each of them an iron door, with six each of them dont chacun avoir huge bolts, are the place where he huge bolts yerrous thuts himself up.

The don't chacun avoir huge bolts gross yerrous shuts himself in self them dont chacun avoir huge bolts.

RULE II. In general, we place after the substantives those adjectives which are formed of the participle present of verbs. Ouvrage divertissant, entertaining work: and always those formed of the participle past, figure arrondie, round figure; those denoting figure. table ovale, oval table; the colour, maison blanche, white house; the savour, herbe amère, bitter herb; the sound, orgue harmonicux, harmonious organ; an idea of action, procureur actif, active attorney; or, an effect produced, coutume abusive, abusive custom; a quality relative to the nature of a thing, ordre grammatical, grammatical order; or, to the species of a thing, qualité occulte, occult quality; those of nation, générosité Angloise, English generosity; those in esque, style burlesque, burlesque style; those in il, jargon puéril, childish jargon; those in ule, femme crédule, credulous woman; those in ic, bien public, public welfare; those in ique, ris sardonique, sardonic laughter, and perhaps a few others; but in this, custom is to be consulted as our only guide.

EXERCISE.

nice

An affected simplicity is a nice cheat.

The lively pictures of Theocritus, Virgil and Gessner carry into the soul a soft sensibility.

In that antique palace are to be seen neither voreathed columns, nor gilded wainscots, nor precious basso-relievos, nor cielings curiously painted, nor grotesque figures of animals which never had existence but in the imagination of a child or a madman.

cheat imposture lively riant pictures tableau carry porter 50/1 doux are to be seen on ne ni ureashed 2. basso-relievos basrelief 1. rvainscots lambris cielings plafond curious y artistement never ne jamais hod existence exister

délicat

If human life is exposed to many troubles, it is also susceptible of many pleasures.

many bien de troubles peine

A ridiculous man is seldom so by halves.

so le by halves à demi Spanish Espagnol manners mœurs

Spanish manners have, at first sight, something harsh and savage.

become passer en among chez

French urbanity was become a proverb among foreign nations.

RULE III. Although it should seem that we may place indifferently before or after the substantives those adjectives that express moral qualities, either good or bad, nevertheless it is taste alone, and an ear exercised by that nice taste, that can assign the proper place they are to hold.

In conversation, or in broken, loose style, it may be indifferent to say femme aimable, or aimable femme; talens sublimes, or sublimes talens, &c.; but in full style, the place of the adjectives may, in a great variety

of ways, affect the beauty of a sentence.

EXERCISE.

An amiable woman gives to every thing she says an inexpressible gracefulness: the more we hear, the more we wish to hear her. gives to répandre sur inexpressible inexprimable we on

The majestic eloquence of Bossuct is like a river, which carries away every thing in the rapidity of its course.

her la must be repeated before each verb majestic majestueux river fleuve

curries away entraîner

The sublime compositions of Rubens have made an English traveller say that this famous painter was born in Flanders, through a mistake of nature.

say dire à famous célèbre through par

The sight of an agreeable landscape is a varied and a rapid source of delightful sensations.

VI.

REGIMEN OF THE ADJECTIVES.

Rule. A noun may be under the regimen of two adjectives, provided those adjectives do not require different regimens. Thus, we say: cct homme est utile et cher à sa famille, that man is useful and dear to his family. But we cannot say: cct homme est utile et chéri de sa famille, that man is useful and beloved by his family, because the adjective utile does not govern the preposition de.

EXERCISE.

A young man whose actions are all regulated by honour, and whose only aim is perfection in every thing, is beloved and rought after by every body.

(honour regulates all, &c.)
(who has no other aim)

Cardinal Richelieu was all his lifetime feared and hated by the great whom he humbled.

by de humbled humilier

A young lady, gentle, civil and decent, who sees in the advantages of birth, riches, wit and beauty nothing but incitements to virtue, is very certain of being beloved and esteemed by every body.

young lady demoiselle

nothing but ne que incitements encouragement certain assuré

VII.

1°. In the use of the ubstantives of measure and dimension, there is a difference of construction in the two languages, which it is important to remark. In English the substantive of measure is placed before the substantive or adjective expressing the dimension, as: a tower two hundred feet high, or in height. In French, the word which expresses the dimension is placed first, if it be an adjective, and the preposition de is added to it as regimen, as: une tour haute de deux cents pieds. But it is placed after, if it be a substantive, or if the adjective be used substantively; adding the preposition

de, either before the noun of measure, or before the noun of dimension, as: une tour de deux cents pieds de hant, or de hauteur. This last expression is the most

elegant.

When we speak of two dimensions only, in the thing measured, the English make use of the construction we have been mentioning, with the verb être, as: the walls of Algiers are twelve feet thick and thirty feet high. But, in French, we generally make use of the verb avoir, as the English adjective is commonly expressed by the French substantive corresponding to it, and then we have two constructions; 10. les murs d'Alger ont douze pieds d'épais-seur, & trente de hauteur. 20. les murs d'Alger ont douze pieds d'épais-seur, sur trente de haut-eur. This last manner is the best and most generally adopted.

2°. In comparative sentences, where we want to express the difference of a thing compared with another, the sentence is often construed in English thus: she is taller than her sister by the whole head. But we ought to say in French: elle est plus grande que sa

sœur de toute la tête.

VIII.

ADJECTIVES OF NUMBER.

Unième is used only after vingt, trente, quarante, tinquante, soixante, quatre-vingt, cent and mille. C'est la vingt-unième fois, it is the twenty-first time.

We now say: vingt-un, or vingt et un; trente-un, or trente et un, and so on to quatre-vingt: but we always say: trente-deux, quarante-trois, cinquante-quatre, &c. The series from soixante to quatre-vingt took formerly the conjunction et between the two numbers, but it is now become obsolete, and it would be a fault to use that conjunction from quatre-vingt to cent. In geometry, we say nonante instead of quatre-vingt-dix.

Čent, in the plural, takes the s, except when followed by another noun of number, as: Ils étoient deux cents, they were two hundred: but we say: Ils étoient

deux cent-dix, they were two hundred and ten; trois cents hommes, three hundred men. Vingt, in quatre-vingt and six-vingt, also takes the s, when followed by a substantive, as: quatre-vingts hommes, eighty men; six-vingts abricots, six score apricots. Nevertheless, we say: quatre-vingt dix hommes. The ordinal numbers, collective and distributive, always take the mark of the plural: les premières douzaines, the first dozens; les quatre cinquièmes, the four fifths.

In the marking of dates, we write mil, as: milsept-cent quatre-vingt-dix-neuf, one thousand seven hundred and ninety nine. Every where else, we write mille, which never takes the mark of the plural, as: dix mille hommes, ten thousand men; quatre mille

chevaux, four thousand horses.

Observation. Cent and mille are used indefinitely, as: il lui fit cent caresses, he made him a hundred (many) varesses; faites-lui mille amitics, show

him a thousand (a great many) civilities.

We say: It once, du once, au once, sur les ence heures, sur les une heures, pronouncing the words once and une as it they were written with an h aspirated. Neuf nine, is pronounced neuv, as: il a neuv ans, he is nine years old. The Academy have given it as their decision that we ought to say: vingt & un an accomplis, trente & un jour passés, quarante & un écu bien comptés, ald. This we ought to say: vingt & un chevaux bien enhanachés. This decision, already old, is not longer followed. We now write: vingt & un ans accomplis; such is the actual usage.

We make use of the cardinal numbers instead of

the ordinal:

1°. In speaking of the hours and current years, as : il est trais heures, it is three o'clock; Pan mil sept-celledix, the year one thousand seven hundred and ten.

2°. In speaking of all the days of the month, except the first. We say: le vingt de Mars, the twentieth of March; but we ought to say: le premiss Mars, the first of March.

30. In speaking of sovereigns and prin ..., 28.

Louis seize, George trois: we are to except the first two of the series, as: Henri premier, George second. We also say: Charles-quint, Sixte-quint, instead of Charles cinq Empereur, and Sixte cinq Pape.

§. IV.

OF THE PRONOUN.

I.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Personal pronouns have the three functions which we have remarked in substantives, but with this difference: that some are always subject, two only, used in apostrophe, some others always regimen, and lastly, others, sometimes subject and sometimes regimen.

Those which are always subject are je, tu, il, ils, as:

je parle, tu joues, il aime, ils s'amusent.

The two which are used in apostrophe are toi and vous, either by themselves, or preceded by the interjection O! as: O! toi, dont l'invocence relève la beauté, toi qui dans un age encore si tendre, &c.; O thou, whose innocence heightens the beauty, thou, who at an age still so tender, &c.; illustres compagnons de mes malheurs, ô vous, &c. illustrious companions of my misfortunes, O ye, &c.

Those which are always regimen are me, te, se, leur, le, la, les, y and en, as: je me trompe, I am mistaken; il se promène, he is walking; nous leur parlons, we are speaking to them; je m'y rendrai, I shall re-

pair thither, &c.

Observation. A verb may have two regimens, the one direct, and the other indirect, as we have already seen. The regimen is direct, when the word governed is the object of the action expressed by the verb. It is indirect when the word governed is the end of that action. In this sentence: j'envoie ce livre à mon frère, ce livre is the object, and à mon frère the end. The first is always without any preposition, either expressed or understood; but the second is preceded by one of these prepositions à or de, always expressed, if it be a noun, and either expressed or understood.

stood, if it be a pronoun; by \hat{a} , if we mean the end aimed at by the action, and by de, if we want to express where that action comes from, or begins at. These being premised,

Leur is always the end, because, being used instead of à eux, it includes the preposition à, as: je leur tarle is instead of je parle à eux, or à elles, I speak to

them.

Me, te, se, are sometimes the object, as: il m'aborde, that is, il aborde mei, he accosts me, and sometimes the end, as: il me tend la main, which is for il tend la

main à moi, he presents me his hand.

Le, la, les, are always the object, and y the end. We say, speaking of a house : je la vois ; il paroît qu'on y a fait de grandes dépenses, I see it; it seems they have gone to a great expence about it. La is for la maison, and y for à la maison.

En is generally the end, but it is sometimes the object. It is the end, when it only supplies the place of a noun and the preposition de, as: vous êtes-vous occupé de mon affaire; oui, je m'en suis occupé, that is, je me suis occupé de votre affaire. This ought to be very carefully attended to, as the English know of no such construction, it being a peculiarity of their language to shorten their expressions as much as possible. The above sentence translated into English is: have you done something in my business? yes, I have, by which turn, the former part of the sentence, though not repeated, vet is perfectly understood, which would not be the case in French: for, were we to say: oui, je suis, the sentence would be incomplete and totally unintelligible.

En is the object, when it supplies the place of a member of an elliptic sentence, as: avez-vous reçu de l'argent? oui, j'en ai reçu, that is, j'ai reçu de l'argent. This happens when the nouns are taken in a partitive sense, and in this case, there is always a noun understood, which, with the complement joined to it by the preposition de, forms an indivisible idea in the

mind.

Some grammarians consider en OBSERVATION.

as being always the end, even in this case, because they separate the word governed from the word governing. But is it not more simple to consider these two words as an indivisible idea, as has been done by Restaut, du Marsais, Girard, Condillac, &c.?

Those which are sometimes subject and sometimes regimen, are nous, vous, moi, toi, soi, lui, elle, eux,

elles.

Nous and vous may be subject, object or end, as: nous pensons (subject); aimez-nous (object); donnez-

nous (end); vous aimez (subject), &c.

In general, moi, toi, soi. hu, eux, are only subject, either as expletives, when we wish to give more force to the discourse, as: moi, je voulois partir aux dépens de ses jours. as for me, I wanted to set off at the risk of his life; il l'a dit lui-même, he has said so himself, &c. or in those distributive sentences where we want to assign the part which different persons have in an action, as; mes frères et mon cousin m'ont secouru; eux m'ont relevé, et lui m'a pansé, my brothers and cousin have assisted me, they have taken me up, and he has bound up my wounds: or, in sentences like this: Pénélope, sa fenonc, et moi qui suis son fils, &c. Penelope, his wife, and I who am his son. &c.

Moi, toi, soi, can be the object, in expositive sentences, but after the verb être, as: c'est moi qui le dis, it is I that say it; c'est toi qui l'as fait, it is thou who hast done it; on n'est jamuis plus sûr du travail, que quand c'est soi qui le conduit, one is never so sure of the work, as when or e does it one's self. To be the end, they must be preceded by a preposition, as: on parle de moi, on rit c'e toi, on s'occupe trop de soi. But moi and toi may be either object or end, mimperative sentences, as: aimez-moi (object); parlez-moi (end); occupe-toi

(object): donne-toi la peine (end).

Lui, is object only as an expletive, as: je le verrai lui-même: its natural function is to be the end, as: je lui donne, parlez-lui.

Eux, elle, elles, are objects as expletives, as: je la verrai elle-mine, je les verrai eux-mêmes; to be the

end, they must be preceded by a preposition, as: je

vais à eux, cela dépend d'elle.

OBSERVATION. These sentences: donnez-moi, donnez à moi, do not present the same idea. The former is used when we merely ask a thing, and the latter, when we ask it of a person who does not know to whom to give it, and who is on the point of giving it to another.

EXERCISE.

OBSERVATION. We shall not give exercises upon all the cases we have been mentioning; we should never have done, and besides, it would prove much too tedious to the learner: pronouns are to be learner chiefly by practice.

I! that I should stoop to the man who has imbrued his hands in the blood of his king!

He said so to my own self.

He comes up to me with a smiling air, and pressing my hand, says: my friend, I expect you to-morrow at my house.

Thou! then wouldst take that undertaking upon thyself! Canst thou think of it?

He is displeasing to himself.

She is never satisfied with herself.

He has been speaking to them with such force as has astonished them.

You would suffer yourself to be overwhelmed by adversity.

In the education of youth, we should propose to ourselves to cultivate, to polish their understanding, and thus enable them to fulfil with dignity, the different stations assigned them; but, above all, we ought to instruct them in that religious wor-

stoop s'abaisser subj-1 to devant imbrued souiller

ozun

comes up aborder
with de
(pressing the hand to
me)
at my house chez moi
take upon thyself se
charger

is displeasing se déplaire

such force as une force
qui
suffer yourself se laisser
to be overwhelmed
abattre
youth jeunes gens

their (to them) the understanding esprit enable disposer stations place (which are assigned to them) ship which God requires of them.

The indiscreet often betray themselves.

Women ought to be very attentive; for, a mere appearance is sometimes more prejudicial to them than a real fault.

Saumaise, speaking of the English authors, used to say; that he had learnt more from them than from any other.

Fortune, like a traveller, shifts from inn to inn: if she lodge to-day with me, to-morrow, perhaps, she will lodge with thee.

To love a person, is to render him, on every occasion, all the services in our power, and to afford him, in society, every comfort that depends upon us.

Your two brothers and mine take charge of the enterprize; they find the money, and he will manage the work.

Descartes deserves immortal praise, because it is he has made reason triumph over authority, in philosophy.

Enjoy the pleasures of the world, I consent to it; but never give yourself up to them.

I shall never consent to that foolish scheme; do not mention it any more-

Have you received some copies of the new work? Yes, I have received sours.

requires exiger
betray se trahir

ought devoir ind-1

is more prejudicial faire plus de tort

shifts from to changer de

with chez she will lodge ce être

in our power dont on
être capable
afford procurer
comfort agrément
depends upon dépendre
de
take charge se charger
find fournir
money fonds
manage conduire

he (who) triumph over triompher de

give yeurself up se livrer

scheme entreprise mention purles

copies exemplaire

cases where the pronouns elle, elles, eux, lui, leur, may apply to things.

Grammarians are not agreed upon those cases: we shall not follow them through all the difficulties which they have taken a pleasure to heap upon one another, but merely say what the present usage is, and, from that, establish the rules to be observed.

The personal pronouns elle and elles, when regimen, generally apply to persons only. We say, speaking of a woman: je m'approchai d'elle, je m'assis près d'elle; but we say, speaking of a table: je

m'en approchai, je m'assis auprès.

But when those pronouns are preceded by the prepositions avec or après, they may very well be applied to things, as: cette rivière est si rapide, quand elle déborde, qu'elle entraîne avec elle tout ce qu'elle rencontre; elle ne laisse après elle que du sable et des cailloux, that river is so rapid, when it overflows, that it carries with it every thing it meets in its course; it leaves nothing behind it but sand and pebbles.

They may also, in many cases, be applied to

things,

With the preposition à. In speaking of an enemy's army, we say: nous marchames à elle, we marched up to it: we cannot even express ourselves any other way.

With de, as: ees choses sont bonnes d'elles-mêmes,

these things are good in themselves.

With pour, as: j'aime la vérité, au point que je sacrifierois tout pour elle, I love truth to that degree, that I would sacrifice every thing to it.

With en, as: ces raisons sont solides en elles-mêmes, those reasons are solid in themselves—and perhaps

with a few more prepositions.

After the verb être, they ought to be applied only to persons, as: c'est à elle, c'est d'elles que je parle, c'est elle-même qui vient. Nevertheless, some grammarians are of opinion, that in the answers to interrogative phrases, they may apply to things, as: est-ce

là votre tabatière? oui, c'est elle; but we think it

more exact to say: oui, ce l'est.

The same may be said of the pronouns eux, lui and leur. Although they are generally applied to persons only, yet custom allows a woman to say: ce chien et ees oiseaux font tout mon plaisir; je n'aime qu'eux, eux seuls sont mon amusement, je ne songe qu'à eux, this dog and these birds are all my pleasure; I love nothing but them, they alone are my diversion, I think of nothing else. Usage also authorizes the following expressions: j'ai fait réparer ma maison, et je lui ai donné un air neuf; ces arbres sont trop chargés, ôtezleur une partie de leur fruit. We see by these examples, and those we have given before, that in order to apply those pronouns to things, there is no need of personifying them.

These being premised, we shall give the following Rule. We ought never to apply to things the pronouns elle, elles, eux, lui and leur, but when usage does not allow us to replace them with the pro-

nouns y and en.

EXERCISE.

Virtue is the first of blessings: it blessings bien devoir piness.

The labyrinth had been built upon the lake of Meris, and they had given it a prospect proportioned to its grandeur.

Mountains are frequented on account of the air one breathes on them: how many people are indebted to them for the recovery of their health?

This book costs me dear, but I am indebted to it for my instruction.

Self-love is captious: we, however, take it for our guide; to it are all our actions directed, and from it we take countel. had been built on bâtir ind-6 prospect vue

on account à cause on them y people personne are indebted for devoir recovery rétablissement

(it is to e that)
(it is to it that we direct)
direct rapporter
and (it is)

These

These arguments, although very solid in themselves, yet made no impression upon him, so strong a chain is habit.

(so much habit is, &c.)

These reasons convinced me, and from them I took my determination.

and (it is)
took my determination
se décider

I leave you the care of that bird; do not forget to give it water.

Vous, used instead of tu, requires the verb to be in the plural, but the adjective that follows remains in the singular, as: vous serez estimé, si vous êtes sage, you will be esteemed, if you be wise.

The pronoun soi is used, only when it relates to a subject vague and indeterminate, if speaking of persons, as: on pense trop à soi; chacun songe à soi; n'aimer que soi, c'est n'être bon à rien. But, when we speak of things, it is used both definitely and indefinitely, as: la vertu est aimable de soi; c'est bon de soi. It is never used in the plural, when speaking of persons: but, in speaking of things, the Academy had decided that it might be used, if placed at the head of the sentence, as: de soi, ces choses sont bonnes. But this decision is annulled, and they now express themselves as follows:

"Soi is a pronoun substantive of both genders, and of the singular number only. When it is used in an absolute sense, it is always with a preposition, and in phrases where there is a pronoun indefinite, either expressed or understood."

The Academy also observe, that, when de soi and en soi are used in a definite sense, with nouns of things,

they mean de sa nature and dans sa nature.

EXERCISE.

Observation. In the greatest writers of the age of Louis XIV. we often meet with faults concerning the use of the pronoun soi, applied to persons. We mention this, that their authority should not lead into error.

To excuse in one's self the follies which one cannot excuse in others, is to prefer being a fool one's self to seeing others so.

The fool of the follies others of the fool of the seeing to seeing to seeing the fool of the

We ought to despise nobody: how often have we not been in need of one more insignificant than ourselves.

If we did not attend so much to ourselves, there would be less egotism in the world.

Vice is odious in itself.

The loadstone attracts iron.

(to itself)

attend to

egotism

we

rve ought

insignificant

be in need avoir besoin

sottises

que de

falloir on

petit

s'occuper

égoisme

on

aimer mieux

A DIFFICULTY ABOUT THE PRONOUN & CLEAR-ED UP.

Le, la, les, are sometimes pronouns, and sometimes articles. The article is always followed by a noun, le roi, la reine, les hommes; whereas the pronoun is always joined to a verb, je le connois, je la respecte, je les estime.

The pronoun *lc* may supply the place of a substantive, of an adjective, or even of a member of a sen-

tence.

There is no difficulty, when it relates to a whole member of a sentence; it is always then in the masculine singular, because a whole member of a sentence has neither gender nor number, as: on doit s'accommoder à l'humeur des autres, autant qu'on le peut, we ought to accommodate ourselves to the humour of

others, as much as we can (do it.)

Neither is there any difficulty, when le supplies the place of a substantive; it being evident that it then takes the gender and number of that substantive, as: madame, êtes-vous la mère de cet enfant? oui, je la suis, madam, are you the mother of that child? yes, I am (she). Mesdames, êtes-vous les parentes dont mossieur m'a parlé? oui, nous les sommes.

It only remains, therefore, to establish the follow-

ing

Rule. The pronoun le takes neither gender nor number, when holding the place of an adjective.

EXAMPLES.

Madame, étes-vous enthumée? oui, je le suis?
Mes iames, étes-vous contentes de ce discours? oui, nous le sommés.

Fut-il jumais une semme plus malheureuse que je le suis.

In all the above sentences, le remains in the masculine singular, because adjectives have of themselves neither gender nor number; they do not regulate the

agreement, they receive it.

This rule is observed, when the substantives are used adjectively, as: madame, étes-vous mère? oui, je le suis: mesdames, étes-vous parentes? oui, nous le sommes: elle est fille, et le sera toute la vie. But not, if the adjectives be used substantively, as; madame, étes-vous la malade? oui, je la suis. Therefore, this question: étes-vous fille de Mr. le Duc? is to be answered: oui, je le suis, and this: étes-vous la fille de Mr. le Duc? oui, je la suis.

We likewise observe the same rule with the article placed before plus and an adjective. It takes gender and number, when there is comparison, as: de toutes les planètes, la lune est la plus brillante pour nous, of all the planets, the moon is the most brilliant for us. But, when there is no comparison, then le takes neither gender nor number, as: la lune ne nous éclaire pas autant que le soleil, même quand elle est le plus brillante, the moon does not light us so much as the sun, even when it shines most. As this distinction is extremely nice, we strongly recommend it to the attention of the studious learner.

EXERCISE.

The laws of nature and decency oblige us equally to defend the honour and interest of our parents, when we can do to without injustice.

We ought not to condemn, after their death, those that have not been condemned during their life-time. decency bienséance

we ought falloir condemned le

Y 2

Was that your idea? Can you doubt that it was?

Are you Mrs. such an one? Yes, I --- am.

Are those your servants? Yes, they -- are.

Ladics, are you glad to have seen the new piece? Yes, we — are.

I, his slave! I, born to command! alas! it is but too true that I am so.

She was jealous of her authority and she ought to be so.

Was there ever a girl more unhappy and treated with more ridicule than I — am?

You have found me amiable: why have I ceased to appear so to you?

Have we ever been so quiet as we

Madam, are you married? Yes, I

Madam, are you the bride? Yes, bride

marice

REPETITION OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

RULE I. The pronouns of the first and second persons, when subject, ought to be repeated before all the verbs, when those verbs are in different tenses; and it is always better to repeat them, even when the verbs are in the same tense.

EXAMPLES.

Je soutiens, et je soutiendrai toujours, I maintain, and (I) will always maintain.

Vous dites, et vous avez tovjours dit, you say, and (you) have always said.

Accablé de douleur, je m'écriai, et je dis, overwhelmed with sorrow, I exclaimed, and (I) said.

Nous nous promenions sur le haut du rocher, et nous voyions

idea pensce that it was ce être subi-2 la

Though the word relating to the interrogative sentence is not expressed in English, yet it must always be in French: this word is-le, which takes either gender or number, according to its relation.

(a woman speaks)

with ridicule ridicule-

sous nos pieds, &c. we were walking upon the summit of the rock, and (we were) seeing under our feet, &c.

OBSERVATION. We ought, in all cases, to repeat these pronouns, though the tenses of the verbs do not change, when the first is followed by a regimen, as: vous aimerez le Seigneur votre Dieu, et vous observerez sa loi, you shall love the Lord your God, and (you shall) observe his law. Nevertheless, there are examples of the contrary in our best authors. This rule is not followed in English.

RULE II. The pronouns of the third person, when subject, are hardly ever to be repeated before the verbs, when those verbs are in the same tense, and they may be repeated or not, when the verbs are

in different tenses.

EXAMPLES.

La bonne grâce ne gâte rien : elle ajoute à la beauté, relève la modestie, et y denne du lustre, good grace spoils nothing: it adds to beauty, heightens modesty and gives it lustre.

Il n'a jamais rien valu, et ne vaudra jamais rien, he never was good for any thing, and never will be.

Il est arrivé ce matin, et il repartira ce soir, he is arrived this morning, and (he) will set off again this evening.

OBSERVATION. We have said hardly ever, because clearness requires the repetition of the pronoun, when the second verb, beside the conjunction et, is preceded by a preposition, which, with its regimen, forms a long incidental phrase, as: il fond sur son ennemi, et après l'avoir saisi d'une main victorieuse, il le renverse comme le cruel aquilon abat les tendres moissons qui dorent la campagne.

RULE III. The personal pronouns, when subject, of whatever person they may be, must always be repeated before the verbs, either when we pass to affirmation, to negation, and vice versá, or when the verbs are joined by conjunctions, except et and ni.

EXAMPLES.

Il weut et il ne weut pas, he wills and he wills not.

Il donne d'excellens principes, parce qu'il sait que les progrès ultérieurs en dépendent, he lays down excellent principles,

because he knows that upon them depends every ulterior progress.

But we say: il donne et reçoit, he gives and receives: il ne donne ni ne reçoit, he neither gives nor receives.

RULE IV. Pronouns, when regimen, are repeated before all the verbs.

EXAMPLES.

L'idée de ses malheurs le poursuit, le tourmente et l'accable. the idea of his misfortunes pursues (him), torments (him) and overwhelms him.

Il nous ennuie et nous obsède sans cesse, he wearies (us) and

besets us incessantly.

OBSERVATION. The pronoun regimen is not repeated, before the verbs, which, being compounds of the first, express the repetition of the same action, as: je vous dis et redis; il le fait, défuit et refuit sans cesse. This, however, is the case, when the verbs are in the same tense. But we ought to repeat the pronoun before the verbs, which, though compounds of the first, yet express a different action, as: du matin au soir, elle ne fait que s'habiller et se déshabiller.

EXERCISE.

I was young and I aimed at the aimed at aspirer à. glory of surpassing my comrades.

God has said: you shall love your enemies, bless those that carse you. curse do good to those that persecute you, and pray for those who slander you: slander calomnies what a difference between this moral. and that of philosophers!

He (Alexander) took the strongest cities, conquered the most considerable provinces and overturned the most powerful empires.

hache He takes a hatchet, cuts off the hatchet cuts off compet mast which was already broken, lrok:n rompre

overturned renverser

maudire

throws it into the sea, calls me by my throws name, and encourages me to follow him.

jetter

The soldier was not repressed by authority, but — stopped through satiety and shame.

through

par

It is inconceivable how whimsical she is; from one moment to the other, she will and she will not.

(she is of a whimsical cast inconceivable)
bizarrerie

The Jews are forbidden to work on the Sabbath; *they* light no fire, and carry no water.

(it is forbidden to)
Sabbathjour du Sabbath
light allumer

Since eight days nearly, she neither eats nor drinks.

nearly près de

It is taste that selects the expressions, that combines, arranges and varies them so as to produce the greatest effect.

(repeat qui before every verb)

50 as 10 de manière à
ce que
they produce

stupid sor

Horace answered to his stupid critics, not so much to instruct them, as to show their ignorance, and let them see that they did not even know what poetry was.

let see faire entendre rous c'étoit que

moins

not so much

RELATION OF THE PRONOUNS OF THE THIRD PERSON TO A NOUN EXPRESSED BEFORE.

RULE. The pronouns of the third person, il, ils, elie, elles, le, la, les, must always relate to a noun, subject or regimen, taken in a definite sense: but they must not be made to relate, either to a subject and regimen at the same time, or to a noun taken in an indefinite sense, or to a noun that has not before been expressed in the same sense.

EXAMPLES.

La rose est la reine des fleurs, aussi est-elle l'embléme de la beauté, the rose is the queen of flowers; therefore, it is the emblem of beauty.

J'aime l'ananas; il est exquis, I like the pine-apple; it is

exquisite.

But we cannot say: Racine a imité Euripide, en tout ce qu'il a de plus beau dans sa Phèdre, Racine has imitated Euripides in all that he has (is) most beautiful in his Phedra; because, as the pronoun il may relate, either to Racine or to Euripides, the sentence is equivocal. Neither can we say: le légat publis une sentence d'interdit; il dura trois mois, the legate published a sentence of interdiction; it lasted three months: because il cannot, from the construction of the sentence, relate to interdit. Again, it is not altogether correct to say: Nulle paix pour l'impie; il la cherche, elle fuit, no peace for the wicked; he seeks it, it flies; because, from the construction, the pronouns la and elle seem to be used for nulle paix, whereas, according to the meaning, they supply the place of the substantive paix, which is the opposite state.

This rule is one of the most difficult to be observed

in the whole language.

EXERCISE.

Poetry embraces all sorts of subjects: it takes in every thing that is most brilliant in history; it enters the fields of philosophy; it soars to the skies; it plunges into the abyss; it penetrates even to the dead; it makes the universe its domain; and if this world be not suffi ient, it creates new ones, which it embellishes with enchanting abodes, which it peoples with a thousand various inhabitants.

Egypt aimed at grandeur, and wanted to strike the eyes at a distance, but always pleasing them by the justness of proportions.

As for that generous music, whose noble harmony raises the soul and heart, the Egyptians were far from despising H_3 since, according to Dio-

subjects matière takes in se charger de y avoir de that is the fields (in) soars s'élancer dans plu ges s'enfoncer (its domain of the universe) be sufficient suffire ones * monde repeated enchanting enchanté abodes demeure various divers

grandeur grand
vounted vouloir
to *
pleasing (in) contenter

harmony accord were far avoir garde sorus himself, their Mercury had been the inventor of it.

Egypt, satisfied with its own country, where every thing was in abundance, thought not of conquests: it extended itself in another manner, by sending colonies to every part of the globe, and with them, politeness and laws.

The Messiah is expected by the Hebrews; he comes and calls the Gentiles, as had been announced by the prophecies; the people that acknowledges him as come, is incorporated with the people that expected him, without a single moment of interruption between the two.

had been the inventor of inventer

was in abundance
abonder
thought songer
by (m)
part of the globe terre

gentiles gentil
(the prophecies had announced it)
acknowledges reconnoître
with a reithout sans que y avir subj-1
single seul

THE PLACE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

There is no difficulty about the place of personal pronouns, when they are subject; it is sufficient to know the custom. In French, the person who speaks, always names himself last, and the person to whom one speaks is generally named first, as: Vous et moi, nous irons à la campagne; nous irons ce soir à la promenade, vous, votre frère et moi. Neverthelesss, we find in Racine:

Entre le peuple et vous, vous prendrez Dieu pour juge.

But, we have said (p. 158) that there are cases in which this rule is not observed.

EXERCISE.

My sister and I we were walking by the last rays of the setting sun, and we were saying: what a sweet splendour does it still spread over all nature!

by ar rayon setting couchant street doux repandre

In the long winter-evenings, my father, my brothers and I, we used

evenings soirée voeused to spend passer to spend two hours in the library, and to read there, in order to divert ourselves from the serious studies of the day, those amiable poets who interest most the heart, by the charms of a lively imagination, and make us love virtue, by disguising it under the mask of an ingenious fiction.

library bibliothèque divert ourselves se dé-

lively riant
by (in)
mask trait

You and your friend shall accompany me to the Museum, and there we shall study nature in her three reigns.

museum musée

With regard to pronouns, when regimen, usage has established the following rules.

RULE I. The pronouns me, te, se, lui, leur, le, la, les, y and en, are generally placed before the verbs; also, nous, vous, lui, without a preposition.

EXAMPLES.

Il me dit, je le vois, je les écoute, je lui parle, j'y songerai, j'en suis ravi.

EXERCISE.

As soon as he had explained to us the maxim of Socrates, he said: you see that it is not without reason he is looked upon as truly wise. explained expliquer he is looked upon (one looks at him)

continually sans cesse

have foundation for

peu de

être fondé å

He was continually saying to me: yet a little patience, and thou wilt disarm even envy itself.

You have, no doubt, some foundation for reproaching him with his faults, but is there any man on earth that is exempt from any?

from ver must

little

itself

his any is subj-1 from any en falloir

To please him, you must never flatter him.

To abandon one's self to metaphysical abstractions, is to throw one's self into an unfathomable abyss.

unfathomable sans fond

RULE II. The pronouns moi, toi, soi, nous, vous, lui, eux, elle and elles, are placed after the verbs, when they are preceded by a preposition.

EXAMPLES.

Cela dépend de moi; je pense à toi; on s'occupe trop de soi; que dites-vous d'eux?

OBSERVATION. The two preceding rules are to be understood of expositive sentences; whereupon we shall observe, that nous, vous, lui, are more properly placed before the verb, when they are the object of a relation which might be expressed by the preposition à, as: Je lui ai enseigné mes principes, I have taught him (to him) my principles. But they can only be placed after the verb, when they are the object of a relation expressed by the preposition de, as: cela dépend de nous, de vous, de lui, (that depends upon us, you, him.)

EXERCISE.

My father loved me so tenderly, none but that he thought of none but me, saw none but me in the universe, and was was only only taken up with me.

If you wish to obtain that favour, you must speak to himself.

It depended on you to excel your rivals, but you would not.

Philip, father of Alexander, being advised to expel from his dominions a man who had been speaking ill of him, 'I shall take care not to do that,' said he, 'he would go and slander me every where.'

RULE III. In imperative phrases, with affirmation, moi, toi, soi, nous, vous, lui, leur, eux, elle, elles, le, la, les, y and en, are placed after the verbs: but, if with negation, me, te, se, nous, vous, lui, leur, le, la, les, y and en, are placed before the verbs.

rvas only taken s'occu~

ne que

per wish vouloir

favour grace

excel emporter sur

roould vouloir ind-4 le

being advised comme on conseilloit dominions état I shall take care not se garder bien

slander médire de

EXAMPLES.

Dites-moi ce qui en est; donnez-en; songez-y: but we say, ne me dites pas ce qui en est; ne m'en donnez point; n'y songez pas.

OBSERVATIONS. 1°. When the pronouns me, te, moi, toi, are placed betwixt an imperative and an infinitive, we make use of me, te, when the imperative is without a regimen direct, as: venez me parler, come and speak to me; va te faire coiffer, go and get thyself dressed. But we make use of moi, toi, if the imperative have a regimen direct, as: laissez-moi faire, let me do it; fais-toi coiffer, get thyself dressed.

2°. If moi, toi, be placed after the imperative, and followed by the pronoun en, they change into me, te, as: donnez-m'en, give me some; retourne-t'en, go back.

3°. When there are two imperatives, joined together by the conjunctions ct, ou, it is more elegant to place the second pronoun before the verb, as: polissez-le sans eesse et le repolissez, polish and repolish it continually; reconnoissez-le pour votre maître, et lui obéissez, acknowledge him as your master, and obey him (accordingly); gardez-les ou les renvoyez, keep them or send them back.

EXERCISE.

Listen to me: do not condemn me without a hearing.

Complain; thou hast just cause of complaining; but, nevertheless, do not complain too bitterly of the injustice of mankind.

listen Ecouter
a hearing (hearing me)
complain se plaindre
cause (a) sujet
complaining plainte
bitterly amèrement
mankind hommes

Give some.

Do not give any.

Think of it.

Do not think of it.

Repeat to them continually, that, without honesty, one can never succeed in the world.

Do not a plat to them continually the same things.

succeed

RULE

réussir

RULE IV. When several pronouns accompany a verb, me, te, se, nous, vous, must be placed first, le, la, les, before lui, leur; and y, en, are always last.

EXAMPLES.

Prétez-moi ce livre; je vous le rendrai demain; si vous me le refusez, je saurai m'en passer. Aurez-vous la force de le leur dire? Il n'a pas voulu vous y mener.

EXCEPTION. In an imperative sentence, with affirmation, le, la, les, are always placed first, as: donnez-le-moi, give it me: offrez-la-lui, offer it to him; conduisez-les-y, conduct them thither: and moi is placed after y, as: menez-y-moi, carry me thither: but we ought to say: menez-nous-y, carry us thither.

EXERCISE.

You wish to make a present to wish fan eventail your sister: there is a beautiful fan; you should with you should present her with it. present office

How many people without merit and without occupation, who would be mere nothings in society, did not gaming introduce there into it!

I shall speak to them about it, and give you a faithful account of it.

It is certain that old Géronte has refused his daughter to Valère; but, because he does not give her to him, it does not follow that he will give her to you.

people gens be mere nothings no tenir à rien did not introduce si introduire into it

does not follow s'ensur-

There are yet more particulars about these pronouns; but "Grammar," says the Abbé de Condillac, "would be very long and very tedious, were none of them neglected. The minutiæ of a language are to be learnt only by practice."

H

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

DIFFICULTIES UPON THE USE OF THE POSSES-SIVE PRONOUNS CLEARED UP.

FIRST DIFFICULTY. The possessive pronouns of the third person, son, sa, ses, leur, leurs, relate either to persons, or to things personified, or simply to things. If they relate to persons, or personified things, we always make use of those possessive pronouns. But, if they relate to things, usage is various. This, one may see, presents the same difficulty as what we have mentioned with regard to the personal pronouns.—We shall clear it up according to the same principles.

When we speak of a statue, a city, a river, the English Parliament, we do not say: sa tête est belle, ses rues sont larges, son lit est profond, ses membres sont éclairés, although we say: cette statue est précieuse par la beauté de sa tête, cette ville étonne par la largeur de ses rues, cette rivière est sortie de son lit, le parlement d'Angleterre est fameux par les lumières de ses membres. We ought to say: la tête en est belle, les rues en sont larges, le lit en est profond, les membres en sont éclairés.

The English language has no such difficulty, as in the above sentences, we may very well put its or merely the: its head, or the head is beautiful, &c.

These being premised, we shall give the following Rule. When we speak of things, we ought to make use of en, instead of the possessive pronouns son, sa, ses, leur, leurs, whenever we can make use of it, and we ought never to use the possessive pronouns, but when it is impossible to substitute the pronoun en.

Thus, we shall say: *l'église a* ses privilèges, the church has its privilèges: si la ville a ses agrémens, la campagne a les siens, if the town has its charms, the country has its own because, in these expressions, we cannot possibly make use of en. But we shall say, speaking of the church: les privilèges en sont grands, the

privileges of it are great; and speaking of a town: les agrémens en sont préférables à ceux de la campagne, the charms of it are preserable to those of the country; because these phrases may very well be construed with the pronoun en.

Nevertheless, usage authorizes us to use the possessive pronouns in matters of science. Thus, we may with propriety say of a triangle: ses angles, ses cotés; of a word: sa signification; of a discourse: sa divi-

sion; of grammar: ses règles, &c.

EXERCISE.

A new custom was a phenomenon in Egypt; for which reason, there never was a people that preserved so long its customs, its laws, and even its ceremonies.

phenomenon prodige for which reason aussi preserved subj. 3

Solomon abandons himself to the love of women; his understanding declines, his heart weakens, and his piety degenerates into idolatry.

declines baisser weakens s'affoiblir

That superb temple was upon the summit of a hill: its columns were of Parian marble, and its gates of gold.

summit haut hill colline Parian de Paros

The Laocoon is one of the finest statues in France: not only the whole, but all its features, even the least, are admirable.

the whole l'ensemble even jusqu'à

The Thames is a magnificent river: its channel is so wide and so deep below London-bridge, that several thousands of vessels lie at their case in it.

channel lit Leiszo au dessous de lie at étre à

This fine country is *justly* admired by foreigners: *its* climate is delightful, *its* soil fruitful, *its* laws wise, and *its* government just and moderate.

justly avec raison

soil soil

The trees of that orchard are well exposed, yet its fruits are bad enough.

The Scine has its source in Burgundy and its mouth at Havre-de-Grice.

The pyramids of Egypt astonish, both by the enormity of their mass and the justness of their proportions.

Egypt alone could erect monuments for posterity: its obelisks are still to this day, as much for their beauty, as for their height, the principal ornament of Rome.

History and geography are a mutual light to each other: a perfect know-ledge of them ought to enter into the plan of a good education.

orchard verger yet cependant

mouth embouchure Havre le Havre

both également (ct elegantly repeated)

could il appartenir à ind-2
alone ne que dresser to this day aujourd'hui as much for autant par height hauteur are a mutual light s'éclairer l'un par l'autre a of them (their)

SECOND DIFFICULTY. One is sometimes puzzled to know whether a possessive pronoun ought to be used or not before a noun that is regimen. This is the

RULE. We ought to put the article, and not the possessive pronoun, before a noun regimen, when a pronoun subject or regimen sufficiently makes up for the non-expression of that possessive, or when there is no sort of equivocation.

EXAMPLES.

J'ai mal à la tête; il faudroit lui couper la jambe; ce cheval a pris le mords aux dents.

N. B. The construction of the above examples being peculiar to the French language, foreigners are very apt to make a mistake and to use the possessive pronoun instead of the article. We therefore, recommend this rule to the attention of the learner.

But should, either the personal pronoun, or circumstances, not remove all equivocation, then the possessive pronoun ought to be joined to the noun. We

ought to say: Je vois que ma jambe s'enfle, I see that my leg is swelling, because I may see the leg of another person swelling. For the same reason, we ought to say: il lui donna sa main à baiser, he gave him his hand to kiss; elle a donné hardiment son bras au chirurgien, she boldly gave her arm to the surgeon.

Observations. 1°. Although verbs which are conjugated with two pronouns of the same person remove every kind of amphibology, at least in general, yet custom authorizes some proverbial expressions, in which the possessive pronoun seems to be useless, as: il se tient ferme sur ses pieds, he stands firm upon his feet (legs); quelque chose qu'il fasse, il se retrouve toujours sur ses jambes, whatever he may do, he always finds himself on his legs.

2°. Custom likewise authorizes certain pleonasms, which seem to make exceptions to this rule, as: je l'ai vu de mes propres yeux, I have seen it with my own eyes; je l'ai entendu de mes propres oreilles, I

have heard it with my own ears.

3°. When we speak of an habitual complaint, we ought to use the possessive pronoun, as: sa migraine

la repris, his head ach is come upon him again.

4°. We never make use of the possessive pronouns before a noun which is to be followed by qui or que and a pronoun of the same person as those possessives. Thus, we ought to say: j'ai reçu la lettre que vous m'avez écrite, I have received the letter which you have written to me. It would be wrong to say:

votre lettre que vous, &c. Foreigners are apt to offend against this rule.

The possessive pronouns perform the office of the article and are regulated by the same laws: they ought, therefore, to be repeated before all the substantives subject or regimen, and before the adjectives which express different qualities, as: son père, sa mère et ses frères sont de retour, his father, mother and brothers are come back; je lui ai montré mes plus beaux et mes plus vilains habits, I have shown him my finest and my ugliest dresses. This rule, which is not always

Z 3.

observed in English, is common, in French, to all adjective pronouns.

EXERCISE.

For the whole winter, he has had has had sore avoir mal.a sore eyes.

I had a fall yesterday and I hurt hurt se faire mal à my leg.

gets off s'échapper

with the utmost swift-

is become unruly prendre le mors aux dents

ness à perte d'ha-

Furious, he gets off from the midst of us, and runs with the utmost swiftness, like a horse that is become unruly.

My gout does not allow me a moment's repose.

If you wish to be beloved, fail not fail not ne pas manquer to perform the promises you have just made.

My study and - garden are my greatest delight.

Show me your great and - small instruments.

OBSERVATIONS

ON THE POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS WHICH ARE NEVER JOINED TO NOUNS.

10 We make use of the personal pronouns instead of those possessives, when names of things are put for names of persons, as: il n'y a point de meilleure plume que lui; il n'y a pas de meilleure épéc que vous. In the tirst example, plume is for écrivain, and in the second, épéc is for tireur d'armes: the possessive pronouns la sienne and la vôtre would give a quite different meaning to the sentences.

2°. Those possessives cannot relate to a noun taken in an indefinite sense. It would be wrong to say: il n'est pas d'humeur à faire plaisir, et la mienne est d'être bienfaisant, he is not of a disposition to do service, and mine is to be benevolent. We must take a different turn and say: il n'est pas d'humeur à faire ploisir, & moi je suis d'une humeur bienfaisante. We may say with propriety: c'est son humeur, mais la

mienne n'est pas la meme, it is his disposition, but mine is not the same; c'est le sentiment de mon frère et le mien, it is my brother's sentiment and mine; because in these phrases, humeur and sentiment are determined.

HE

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Qui, subject, may very properly relate to persons and to things, as: l'homme qui joue perd son temps, the man who plays loses his time; le livre qui plait le plus n'est pas toujours le plus utile, the book which pleases most is not always the most useful. But, when it is the object of a relation, it can only be said of persons or of things personified, whether the regimen be direct, or indirect, as: quand an est délicat és sage dans ses goûts, on ne s'attache pas, sans savoir qui l'on aime, he who is wise and discriminate in his feelings, does not form an attachment, without knowing whom he loves: l'homme à qui appartient ce beau jardin est très-riche, the man to whom this fine garden belongs is very rich: la femme de qui vous parlez, the woman of whom you are speaking.

OBSERVATION. When the object of the relation is expressed by the preposition de, we ought to prefer dont to de qui. It is better to say: la fenume dont vous parlez; but it is only when the relative is to be fol-

lowed by a personal pronoun.

RULE I. Qui must not be separated from its antecedent, when that antecedent is a noun.

EXAMPLE.

Un jeune homme qui est docile aux conseils qu'on lui donne, et qui aime à en recevoir, aura infailliblement du mérire,
A young man who is docile to the counsels which are given him, and who loves to receive them, will infallibly have merit.

Observation. In some phrases, qui may be separated from the substantive by a certain number of words: it is when the sense forces it to be referred to that substantive, as: il a fallu avant toute chose, vous faire lire dans l'écriture sainte l'histoire du peuple de Dieu, qui fait le fondement de la religion. This sentence of Bossuet is very correct, because, as du peuple

determines the kind of history, and de Dieu the kind of people, the mind necessarily goes back to the substantive histoire, to which it refers the incidental phrase. But as for this kind of gallicism: je lui écris des lettres que je crois qui sont admirables, it is a real irregu-

larity, which it is not easy to account for.

Qui, however, may be separated from its antecedent, when this antecedent is a pronoun regimen direct, as: il la trouva qui pleuroit à chaudes larmes, he found her crying bitterly; je le vois qui joue, I see him playing; because in this case, the place of the pronoun is before the verb, and it is the same as saying: il trouva elle qui pleuroit, &c.; je vois lui qui joue. Also in these kind of sentences, which are real gallicisms: ceux-là ne sont pas les plus malheureux qui se plaignent le plus, those are not the most unhappy who complain the most.

From this rule it follows 1°. That we cannot place a preposition with its regimen between qui and its antecedent. Et d'un bras, à ces mots, qui peut tout ébranler is an erroneous construction in Despréaux. 2°. That we cannot make the relative qui relate to a substantive followed by the phrase which it governs, as: la cinquième époque est celle de la fandation de Rome, qui ne finit, &c. These errors have been committed by very good writers.

OBSERVATION. Some grammarians maintain that qui ought to be repeated before every verb: but this rule is too general; we think that it is often necessary, but certainly not always. Our best authors have a great many examples of the contrary.

EXERCISE.

A young man who loves the vanity of dress, like a woman, is unworthy of wisdom and glory; glory is only due to a heart that knows how to suffer pain and trample upon pleasure.

the vanity of dress se parer vainement

trample upon fouler aux pieds

Thyself, O my son, my dear son I thou thyself that now enjoyest a youth

so lively and so fruitful in pleasures, remember that this fine age is but a flower rubich will be dried up as soon as open.

Men pass away like flowers, which open in the morning and at night are withered and trampled under foot.

You must have a man that loves nothing but truth and you, that will speak the truth in spite of you, that will force all your entrenchments; and that necessary man is the very same whom you have sent into exile.

We perceived him waiting for us, quietly seated under the shade of a

tree.

OBSERVATION. In English, there is no need of

attending to this rule.

Rule II. The relative qui must always relate to a noun taken in a determinate sense.

dried up sêcher open éclore

remember

se souvenir

eten s'épanouir and (which) withered flétrir you must have il falloir nothing but ne que will (change the future into the present of

the subjunctive.)
entrenchments retranchement
sent into exile exiler
vaiting for (who waited) attendre
under à

EXAMPLES.

L'homme est un animal raisonable, qui, &c. Il me reçut avec une politesse, qui, &c.

But we cannot say: l'homme est animal raisonnable, qui, &c. Il me reçut avec politesse, qui, &c.

Hence, qui cannot relate to a verb, or to any other member of a sentence. Thus: les Gaulois se disent descendus de Pluton, qui est une tradition des druides, is an incorrect sectence, and although the translation of it into English by, the Gauls pretend to be descended from Pluto, which is a tradition of the druids, may not strike at first sight, as being erroneous, yet, with a little attention, it will be found, that as qui is immediately following Pluton, the reader is led to expect that Pluton is the antecedent, and that what is going to follow will relate to that antecedent. Instead of qui, there should be ce qui. This fault is to be found

in many excellent writers of the last century, and

among others, in Mad. de Sévigné.

Observation. M.M. de Port Royal very justly remark, that although in many phrases the determination of the nouns is not expressed, yet it is so, in fact. Thus, all these phrases are correct: il n'a point de livre qui ne soit de son choix, he has not a book which is not of his own selecting. Y a-t-il ville dans le royaume qui soit plus favorisce? is there a city in the kingdom that is more favoured? il n'y a pas homme qui soit assuré d'une heure de vie, there is no man (not a man) that is sure of an hour's life; il se conduit en homme qui connoît le monde, he behaves himself like a man who knows the world; il est accablé de maux qui ne lui laissent pas un instant de repos, he is overwhelmed with evils that do not allow him a moment's rest; c'est une sorte de fruit qui ne mûrit pas en Europe, it is a sort of fruit (a fruit) that does not ripen in Europe. From the translation of all the above examples, it is evident that livre, ville, homme, maux, are really determined, the meaning being: il n'a pas un livre qui, &c., y a-t-il une ville qui, &c., and as to the word sorte, we have seen that it also determines the word fruit.

EXERCISE.

He received us with such goodness, such as un qui civility and grace as charmed us, and made us forget all we had suffered.

There is a subj. there be subj.

There is no city in the world where there are more riches and a

greater population.

Is there a man can say: I shall man (who) live to-morrow? can subj.

He has no friend but would make would make subj-2. for him every kind of sacrifice.

He is surrounded by enemies, who are continually observing him, and would very much wish to find him in fault.

In his retreat, he lives as a sage, as a en se défier them.

The pine-apple is a sort of fruit that ripens in Europe only in hothouses.

hot-houses serre chaude

That man is a sort of pedant, who takes words for ideas, and facts confusedly heaped up, for knowledge.

heaped entass

Que relates to persons and things, in all cases. It is always object in a preposition, and cannot be without an antecedent expressed, which it generally follows. L'homme que je vois, la pêche que je mange. We say generally, because in some instances, it may be separated from the antecedent by a certain number of words: it is when the mind necessarily goes back to that antecedent, as in this sentence of Fléchier's, qu'est-ce qu'une armée? c'est un corps animé d'une infinité de passions différentes, qu'un homme habile fait mouvoir pour la défense de la patrie.

EXERCISE.

The God whom the Hebrews and Christians have always served, has nothing in common with the deities full of imperfection and even of emptiness, worshipped by the rest of the world.

emptiness vide (that the rest of the world worshipped)

Notwithstanding the danger of their position, the senate remained firm in their maxims, and the decree which they issued, not to grant any thing by force, passed as a fundamental law of Roman policy, from which there is not one single example of the Romans having departed during the whole time of the republic.

issued donner

Epopæa is not the panegyric of a hero which is proposed as a pattern, (that the Romans have departed)

is proposed on propose pattern modele

but the recital of a great and illustrious action, which is exhibited for imitation.

The good which we hope for shows itself to us, and flies away like an empty dream, which a man's awaking causes to vanish, to teach us that the very things which we think we hold fast in our hands, may slip away in an instant.

Plato says, that, in writing, we ought to hide ourselves, to disappear, to make the world forget us, that we may produce nothing but the truths we wish to impress, and the passions we wish to purify.

exhibited donner imitation exemple

flies arway s'envoler
a man's arwaking
réveil
causes faire
ve
hold fast tenir le mieux
in our hands
*
slip arway échapper à

to make the world forget so faire oublier that we may produce pour ne produire que we on wish vouloir impress persuader

Que may be exclamative, conjunction, or pronounIn this sentence: que l'homme est à plaindre, quand il
sublie que c'est la raison que son cœur doit consulter!
how is man to be pitied, when he forgets that it is
reason (that) he ought to consult! the first que is exclamative, the second a conjunction, and the third a
pronoun. It is exclamative when, at the head of a
sentence, it disposes the mind to lively and unexpected
sensations: it is a conjunction, when, in the body of
a sentence, it is without an antecedent; and it is a
pronoun, when it has an antecedent, and in this case,
it may otherwise be expressed by lequel and the substantive, as: l'homme que je vois, that is: Phomme,
lequel homme je vois.

OBSERVATION. There are instances where que appears to be the object of a relation, as it seems to be used instead of à qui, or dont, as: c'est à vous que je parle; c'est de lui que je parle; de la façon que j'ai dit la chose. All grammarians agree that we cannot express ourselves any other way; but they do not agree about the nature of that que. Some will have it to be a relative, and others say it is a conjunction. Without entering into a discussion, which is useless

in a book of elements, we are of opinion that it is better to consider it, in this case, as a conjunction.

Lequel and dont relate both to persons and things. It is a general rule, that we ought never to use lequel. either as subject or object, but when it is to avoid amphibology; for, whenever the sense is sufficient to remove it, we must make use of qui or que: this is

conformable to the present practice.

Lequel, with the preposition de, is either followed or preceded by a noun, which it unites to the principal sentence. If it be followed by the noun, we ought to prefer dont to duquel, both for persons and things. Thus, we say: la Tamise dont le lit, and not de laquelle: le prince dont la protection, and not duquel. But, in speaking of persons, de qui is still better than dont, and in this last example, we should preser le prince de qui la protestion. This, however, is not correct, unless the word which follows the pronoun be a substantive; for, we have said before, that dont is preferable to de qui, when the following word is a personal pronoun. If lequel be preceded by the noun, we can only make use of duquel, when speaking of things, as: la Tamise, dans le lit de laquelle; and it is always better to use it, when speaking of persons, as: le prince à la protection duquel: de qui would not be so well.

With the preposition \hat{a} , we can only make use of auquel, when speaking of things, as: les places auxquelles il aspire; but we ought to prefer à qui, when speaking of persons, as: les rois à qui on doit obéir: aunquels would not do so well.

It is easy to see that the relative qui, preceded by a preposition, never relates to things, but to persons

only.

EXERCISE.

The grand principle on which the turns all whole turns, is, that all the world is but one republic, of which God is the common father, and every nation, as it were, one great family.

as it were

comme

rouler

That good king, whose goodness was inexhaustible, considered as lost, all the days that had not afforded him an opportunity of doing good.

Homer, whose genius is grand and sublime like nature, is the best poet, and perhaps the most profound mosalist of antiquity.

What pity that la Bruyere, whose "Characters" you so justly admire, has not always a style correct and pure!

The celebrated Zenobia, whose noble firmness you have admired, preferred to die with the title of queen, rather than to accept the advantageous offers, which Aurelian made her.

The Alps, on the summit of which the astonished eye discovers perpetual snow and ice, present, at sun-set, the most imposing and most magnificent spectacle.

A king, to whose solicitude we owe a good law, has laboured more towards his own glory, than if he had conquered the universe.

The ambitious man sees nothing but pleasures in the possession of the places to which he aspires with so much ardour, instead of seeing the troubles that are inseparable from them.

Kings, whom religion imposes upon us as a duty to obey, are, upon earth, the true image of the providence of God. afforded fournir occasion

pity dommage has not subj.

preferred rather aimer

sun-set soleil couchant

towards pour

instead of au lieu de are (which are)

whom (to)
imposes upon as a duty
faire un devoir

Quei can never relate but to things. It follows, but always preceded by a preposition, the word to which it relates, and is generally followed by the subject of the phrase which it unites. Formerly, it was of much greater use than now: they said: la chose a quoi on pense; voilà les conditions sans quoi la chose ne peut se faire; this turn is still to be met with in some writers and not disapproved of by the Academy; but duquel and auquel are much better; for, quoi has a vague signification, for which reason it is never used with any degree of propriety, but when it relates to a vague and indefinite subject, such as ce or rien, as: c'est de quoi je m'occupe sans cesse; il n'y a rien à quoi je sois plus disposé.

Où, d'où, par où, never relate but to things. We never use them, but when the nouns to which they relate express some kind of motion or of rest, at least metaphorically, as: voilà le but où il tend, that is the end he aims at; c'est une chose d'où dépend le bonheur public, it is a thing upon which the public happiness depends: les lieux par où il a passé, the places

through which he has passed.

Observation. Maison has two meanings; when it signifies race, we ought to say: la maison dont il est sorti, the family from which he is sprung: but when it is taken in its proper sense, we say: la maison d'où il est sorti, the house whence he is come out. This distinction, which had been glanced at by Vaugelas, has been fixed by T. Corneille.

EXERCISE.

What a young man who begins the world ought principally to attend to, is not to give it a high opinion of his understanding, but to get himself many friends by the qualities of his heart.

A youth lost in uselessness, softness and voluptuousness, prepares for us nothing but sorrows and disgusts in

to what
begins entrer dans
to attend s'attacher
it y
opinion idée
understanding esprit
to get himself se faire

softness mollesse

old age: this, nevertheless, is what we little think of.

of which (to)

There is nothing by which we show ourselves more affected than the loss of fortune, although, being frail and perishable by its nature, it cannot contribute to our happiness.

by a ve on affected sensible freil frèle cannot subj.

A grove in which I brave the ardour of the canicula, a retired valley where I can meditate in peace, a high hill whence my eye can extend over immense plains, are the places where I spend the happiest moments of my life.

canicula canicule

spend

passer

IV.

ABSOLUTE PRONOUNS.

Qui relates to persons only: but, as it presents to the mind nothing but a vague undetermined idea, it would, perhaps, be better not to use it but in the singular number, as: qui sera assez hardi pour l'attaquer? who will be bold enough to attack him? Custom, however, authorizes the use of it, in the feminine and in the plural, as: qui est cette personne? who is that person? qui sont ces femmes? who are those women?

In a book of geography, printed in a foreign country, we read: qui sont les états de l'Amérique? It

ought to have been: quels sont les états, &c.

Que and quoi relate to things only, as: que pouvoit la valeur en ce combat funeste? what could valour do in that fatal combat? à quoi pensez-vous? what are you thinking of? Que is sometimes used for à quoi, de quoi, as: que sert la science sans la vertu? what avails learning without virtue? que sert à l'avare d'avoir des trésors? what use is it to the miser to possess treasures? that is: à quoi sert, &c. de quoi sert, &c.

OBSERVATION. Quoi sometimes relates to a whole sentence, and in this case, it is the only ex-

pression authorized by custom, as: la vie passe comme un songe: c'est cependant à quoi on ne pense guères.

Quel relates both to persons and things, as; quel homme peut se promettre un bonheur constant? quelle grâce! quelle beauté! mais quelle modestie!

Où, d'où, par où, never relate but to things.

EXERCISE.

Who could ever persuade himself, did not daily experience convince us of it, that, out of a hundred persons, there are ninety who sacrifice, to the enjoyment of the present, all the best founded hopes of the life to come?

Who would not love virtue for its own sake, could we but see it in all its beauty?

What would you have him do, alone against so many enemies?

What is an army? a body animated with an infinite number of different passions, which a skilful man puts into motion for the defence of the country.

He who did not know how to apply himself in his youth, does not know schal to do in mature age.

He is a wise legislator, who, having given to his nation, laws calculated to make them good and happy, made them swear not to violate any of those laws during his absence: after which, he went away, exiled himself from his country, and died poor in a foreign land.

What people of antiquity ever had better laws than the Egyptians?
A a 3

out of sur

life to come avenir

its own sake elle-même could we on pouvoir ind-2

would have vouloir ind-2 him do (prel. observations)

with do
infinite number infinité
puts into motion faire
mouvoir
country patrie

hovo *
what (to)
to do s'occuper
mature viril

nation concitoyen calculated propre

not to violate (that they would not) went away partir What other nation ever undertook to erect monuments calculated to triumph both of time and of barbarians ?

calculated to fait pour both également

When Ménage had published his book of the Crigin of the French Language, Christina, queen of Sweden, said: " Menage is the most troublesome man in the world; he cannot let one word go without its passport: he must know whence it comes, where it has passed through, and whither it is going."

when après que

trouble same incommode cannot ne sauroit passer 20 71.2156 vouloir

is going aller

OBSERVATION. Que and quoi govern the preposition de before the adjective that follows them, as: que dit on de nouveau? quoi de plus agréable! governs it likewise before the substantives.

What more instructive and entertaining than to read celebrated authors in their own language! What beauty, what delicary and grace, which cannot be conveyed into a translation, are not discovered in them?

which cannot que on delicacy finesse be conveyed faire passer are not (active voice)

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

We have seen that ce, joined to a noun, takes its gender and number, and that, as it does the office of article, it ought to follow the same laws of repetition. It is also joined to the verb etre, and to a relative

pronoun.

Ce, joined to the verb être, is always masculine singular, except when it is followed by the third person plural. We say: c'est moi, c'est toi, c'est lui, c'est nous, c'est vous; but we ought to say: ce sont eux, ce sont elles, ce furent vos ancetres qui, &c. The example of Bossuet and some other writers proves "This custom, which is purely French," says Vangelas, " has a wonderful grace, though it may seem to militate against the rules of grammar."

Co is often used for a person or thing before mentioned, and, in this case, it is for il or elle. We must always make use of ce, when the verb etre is followed by a substantive, taken in a determinate sense, that is, accompanied by the article, or the adjective un, as: lisez Homère et Virgile : ce sont les plus grands poëtes de l'antiquité, rend Homer and Virgil: they are the best poets of antiquity. La douceur, l'affabilité et une certaine urbanité distinguent l'homme qui vit dans le grand monde: ce sont la les marques auxquelles on le reconnoit, gentleness, affability and a certain urbanity, distanguish the man that lives in the great world: those are the marks by which he may be known. Avezvous lu Platon ? c'est un des plus beaux génies de l'an-tiquité, have vou read Piato? he is one of the greatest geniuses of antiquity. Some grammarians are of opinion, that there would be no impropriety in making use of il or elle; but the turn would not be so elegant, nor so well adapted to the genius of the French language. But, when the verb etre is followed by an adjective, or by a substantive taken adjectively, we ought to make use of il, elle, as: lisez Démosthène et Ciceron; ils sont très-éloquens: j'ai vu l'hôpital de Greenwich; il est magnifique et digne d'une grande nation. Compteriez-vous sur Valère? ignorez-vous qu'il est homme à ne jamais revenir de ses premières idées? would you rely upon Valère? do you not know that he is that kind of man that will never give up his first ideas? As no such distinction is made in English, the learner ought particularly to attend to this rule.

OBSERVATION. Ce, joined to the verb être, is a turn which gives a peculiar energy to the expression: ce furent les Phéniciens qui les premiers, &c., expresses something more than les Phéniciens furent les premiers qui, &c. The former phrase points out the

Phoenicians; the latter merely names them.

Ce, joined to a felative pronoun, relates to things only. It is always masculine singular, because it only denotes a vague object, which is not sufficiently specified to know its gender and number, as: ce qui flatte est plus dangereux que ce qui offense, what flatingerous than what offends.

OBSERVATION. Ce, joined to the relative pronouns qui, que, dont and quoi, has, in some instances. a construction which is peculiar to it, and which Vaugelas was the first to remark. Cc and the relative pronoun that follows it, form with the verb which they precede, the subject of another phrase, of which the verb is always être. Now, être may be followed by another verb, an adjective, or a noun. When it is followed by another verb, the demonstrative ce is to be repeated, as: ce que j'aime le plus, c'est d'étre seul, what I like most is to be alone. Ce à quoi l'avare pense le moins, c'est de jouir de ses richesses, what the miser thinks least of is to enjoy his riches. When it is followed by an adjective, the demonstrative is not repeated, as: ce dont vous venez de me parler est horrible, what you have been mentioning to me is horrid. But, if it be followed by a substantive, the demonstrative may either be repeated or not, at pleasure, except in the case of a plural, or a personal pronoun. Thus, we may say: ce que je dis est, or, c'est la vérité, what I say is truth, though the former is better. But we ought to say: ce qui m'indigne, ce sont les injustices qu'on ne cesse de faire, what provokes me, are the injuries which are continually committed; ce qui m'arrache au sentiment qui m'accable, c'est vous, what alleviates the grief that oppresses me, is you. Most of these rules essentially contribute to the elegance of language.

EXERCISE.

It is we, have drawn that misfortune upon us, through our thoughtlessness and imprudence.

It was the Egyptians that first observed the course of the stars, regulated the year and invented arithmetic.

Peruse attentively Plato and Cicero: they are the two philosophers of antiquity that have given us the most sound and luminous ideas upon morality.

have (that) upon thoughtlessness

légèreté

sound

sain

If you be intended for the pulpit, read over and over again Bourdaloue and Mussillon: they are both very eloquent; but the aim of the former is to convince, and that of the latter to persuade.

What is astonishing is not always what is pleasing.

What constitutes poetry is not the exact number and regulated cadence of syllables; but it is the sentiment which animates every thing, lively fiction, bold figures, the beauty and variety of imagery: it is enthusiasm, fire, impetuosity, force, a something in the words and thoughts which nature alone can impart.

What pleases us in the writings of the ancients is, to see that they have taken nature as a model, and that they have painted her with a noble simplicity.

What that good king has done for the happiness of his people deserves to be handed down to the latest posterity.

What we justly admire in Shakespear are those characters always in nature and always supported.

What keeps me attached to life, is you, my son, whose tender age has still need of my cares and counsels.

are intended for se destiner a read over and over again lire & relire sans cesse aim but

is astonishing étonner is pleasing plaire

constitutes faire

a something un je ne sai quoi impart donner

as a pour

deserves être digne to be handed down être transmis à

we on *
those *
supported soutenu

keeps attached attacher

There are two ways of employing celui. In the first, it is followed by a noun preceded by the preposition de, and then it applies both to persons and things, as: celui de vous qui, &c., whichever of you that, &c., or, in speaking of a grotesque figure, elle ressemble à celles de Calot, it is like those of Calot. In the second

instance, it is followed by qui, que or dont, and there applies more generally to persons, as: celui qui ne pense qu'à lui seul dispense les autres d'y penser, he who thinks of nobody but himself exempts others from thinking of him.

OBSERVATION. In this last instance, we sometimes omit celui, and this turn gives strength and elegance to the expression, as: qui veut trop se faire

craindre se fuit rarement aimer.

Ceci and cela apply only to things...

OBSERVATION. In familiar style, custom authorizes us to say, in speaking of a child, or of country people amusing themselves: ccla est heureux!

EXERCISE.

Whichever of you shall be found to excel the others both in mind and body, shall be acknowledged king of the island.

There are admirable pictures: these are after the manner of Rubens', and those after the manner of Van-Huisum's.

Why are the statues of our most celebrated sculptors, notwithstanding the perfection to which the arts have been carried, so much inferior to those of the ancients?

He whose soul blazing, as it were, with fire divine, shall represent to himself the whole of nature, and shall breathe into the objects that spirit of life, which animates them, those affecting traits which seduce and ravish us, shall be a man of real genius.

He that judges of others from himself is liable to many errors.

He that is easily offended, discovers

be found to excel on trouver vainqueur both in et pour

there are voilà are after être dans manner. genre

have been carried (on active voice)
inferior au dessous
blazing with enflam-

mer de

the whole of tout shall breathe into répandre sur affecting touchant real year

from d'après liuble exposé

is offended s'offensor

This weak side, and affords his enemies weak side foible affords affords of taking advantage of it.

He who loves none but himself does not deserve to be loved by others.

VI.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

On, always subject, denotes a sort of a third person vague and indeterminate. It is by its nature masculine singular, and can only apply to persons. Some grammarians contend that it may apply to a feminine and to a plural, as when a woman says: on n'est pastoujours maîtresse de son temps, one is not always mistress of her time, or in this expression: on se battit en désespérés, they fought desperately. But though custom authorizes this turn, yet we do not think it elegant, nor conformable to the genius of the language: nevertheless, we must own that the Academy admits of these expressions.

This pronoun is repeated before all the verbs of 2 sentence: but care ought to be taken to make it refer to one and the same subject. Thus, this sentence: on croit être aimé & l'on ne nous aime pas, is incorrect; we ought to say: on croit être aimé & on ne l'est pas.

Some grammarians affirm that quiconque ought to be followed by an adjective in the feminine gender, when it unequivocally relates to women, as: quiconque de vous sera assez forte pour, &c. But this is only delighting in the creation of difficulties: we ought to use the proper expression and say: celle de vous qui sera assez forte pour, &c. Nevertheless, modern grammarians, and the Academy itself, admit of this practice.

Chacun, though always singular, may be followed, sometimes by son, sa, ses, and sometimes by leur, leurs,

which in many instances is very puzzling.

There is no difficulty in those phrases where chacun does not belong to a plural number; we then make use of son, sa, ses, as; donnez à chacun sa part, give

to each his share: que chacun songe à ses affaires, let every one mind his own business.

But it is not so in phrases where chacun belongs to

a plural number.

Rule. In phrases where *chacun* is contrasted with a plural number to which it belongs, we ought to make use of *son*, *sa*, *ses*, when the relation of possession answers in a more direct manner to the distributive singular: but we ought to make use of *Jeur*, *Jeurs*, when that relation answers more directly to the plural.

EXAMPLE.

Remettez ces médailles, chacune en sa place, return those medals, each into its proper place. Les hommes devroient s'aimer, chacun pour son propre intérêt, men ought to love one another, each for his own interest.

But we ought to say: les hommes devroient avoir, chacun pour leur propre intéret, de l'amour les uns pour les autres.

The latter part of the above rule does not obtain in English, and they would say, in the last example, each for his own interest, each being always deemed

singular.

Observation. The relation of possession answers in a more direct manner to the distributive singular, when *chacun* is placed after the regimen: then the collective sense expressed by the plural is at an end, and the distributive *chacun* must do the office which is peculiar to it, by considering the whole kind separated into individuals: this is the case in the first two examples. But the relation of possession answers in a more direct manner to the plural, when *chacun* is placed before the regimen; for then, the collective sense is not completed, and consequently it ought to be carried on to the end, which is the case in the third example. This is the opinion of the Academy.

In phrases in which the verb has no regimen, we are to consider what are the operations of the mind. If it be the collective sense we have in view, and we

mean to fix the attention upon that, we must make use of leur, leurs: if, on the contrary we mean to fix the attention upon the distributive sense, then we must make use of son, sa, ses: but this distinction is so nice. that we think, in this case, it is surer to use the singular.

We put in the plural the pronoun which is to be after chacun, as: la reine dit elle-même aux députés qu'il étoit temps qu'ils retournassent chacun chez eux.

Such, till now, has been the general opinion. the author of the "New Treatise upon the French Syntax" finds a shocking contradiction in the greatest part of these rules, in which the collective and distributive senses are confounded together. For which reason, he reproves this construction and wishes it may be avoided on all occasions. According to his opinion,

instead of

perdu, chacune, leurs tures a perdu son timon. timons.

Ces femmes sont trèsattachées, chacune, à leurs maris,

Prenons, chacun, notre chapeau,

Allons-nous-en, chacun, chez nous,

Ils s'en allèrent, chacun, chez eux,

rve ought to say: Ces deux voitures ont Chacune de ces voi-

> Chacune de ces femmes est très-attachée à son mari.

> Que chacun de nous prenne son chapeau.

> Que chacun de nous aille chez soi.

> Chacun s'en alla chez soi.

We cannot but confess that the author of the Syntax is perfectly right in this respect; but we think, with the grammarians who have written since, that he is too severe, when he also rejects these two sentences: ils ont apporté des offrandes, chacun selon ses moyens, or ils ont apporté leur offrande, chacun selon ses moyens, because the collective sense ending with the word offrande, the distributive chacun then performs its office.

EXERCISE.

Go into my library and see whether the books which have been sent back to me have been put cach into its place.

They have all brought offerings to the temple, every one according to his means and devotion.

Thierry charged Uncelenus to carry his orders to the mutineers and to make them retire each under his colours.

Each of them has brought his offering and fulfilled his duty of religion.

Have Ronsard and Balac had, each in his manner of writing, a sufficient degree of good, to form after them any very great men in verse and in prose?

After a day so usefully spent, we went back, each to his own home.

Minds that possess any justness, examine things with attention, in order to give a fair judgment of them; and they place them each in the rank it ought to occupy.

sent back renvoyer

offerings offrande

to carry aller porter mutincers mutin

(they have brought each their, &c.) fulfilled remplir

manner of writing genre a sufficient degree assez

day journée
event back retourner
to chez with pron.
personal
possess avoir de
give a fair judgment
juger avec connoissance
place mettre
to occuty avoir

We cannot always apply to *autrui* the possessive pronouns son, sa, ses, leur, leurs, and their right application is often attended with difficulties.

Rule. The possessive pronouns son, sa, ses, leur, leurs, are properly applied to autrui, when the substantives to which those pronouns are joined, are preceded by a preposition; but we ought to make use of en and the article, when the substantives to which they were to have been joined, are without a preposition.

EXAMPLE.

Vous pouvez épouser les intéréts d'autrui sans être le panégyriste de toutes leurs actions, you may espouse the interests of others, without being a panegyrist of all their actions.

But we ought to say:

Epousez les intérets d'autrui; mais gardez-vous bien d'en épouser les querelles.

N. B. The latter part of this rule cannot be observed in English. See the rule on possessive pronouns.

Personne used as a pronoun, is always masculine, of course the adjective relating to it must be of that gender, as: personne n'est aussi sévère, aussi vertueux en public, que certaines femmes qui sont le moins retenues en particulier, no body is so severe, so virtuous in public, as some women who have the least restraint in private. Personne n'est aussi heureux qu'elle, nobody is so happy as she. The Academy admits only of this practice. Thus, we are not to say, with some grammarians: mesdames, il n'y a personne de vous assex osée pour, &c.; but we ought to say, in making use of the proper expression: il n'y a aucune de vous, &c.

We have observed, that two singulars require the verb in the plural; but the Academy in their "Observations upon Vaugelas", think, that with l'un et l'autre, as well as with ni l'un ni l'autre, we may indifferently use the singular or the plural, and it is still its opinion; nevertheless, the present practice seems to us to be for using the plural only. It is the same with ni repeated, with two nouns. But as for the disjunctive ou, there can be no difficulty, and we say: l'un ou l'autre viendra avec moi, either of them is to

come with me.

With the nouns, there is a distinction to be made. If they be of different numbers, the verb ought to agree with the subject nearest to it. Thus, we shall say: le crédit que cette place donne, ou les richesses qui y sont attachées la lui font rechercher, and on the contrary: les richesses attachées à cette place, ou le crédit qu'elle donne, la lui fait rechercher. This is conformable to the English construction, as has already been observed.—With two singulars, the verb evidently remains in the singular.

B b 2

When both subjects are personal pronouns, we are to make another distinction. If both pronouns be of the third person, the verb is put in the singular, as: elle ou lui est coupable, either she or he is guilty; but it is put in the plural, if they be of different persons, as: vous ou moi l'avons fait, either you or I have done it; vous ou elle l'avez fait, either you or she has done it.

Such is the sentiment of the French Academy; but the English construction is altogether different, as may be seen in the last example. Either you or she has done it: either, she or you have done it: either you or I am

mistaken.

Même is joined to nouns and pronouns, to give more energy to the expression, as: c'est la vertu même, it is virtue itself; ee sont les grâces mêmes, it is gracefulness itself; est-ce vous-même? is it you yourself? In this case, it takes the mark of the plural, and those grammarians who think otherwise are mistaken.

Tout, when regimen direct, is placed after the verb, in simple tenses, and between the auxiliary and the participle, in compound tenses, as: il avoue tout; il a tout avoué. But when it is regimen indirect, it is always placed after the verb, either in simple or compound tenses, as: il rit de tout; il a pensé à tout. Rien follows the same order of construction.

Tout is sometimes used as an adverb, and merely as an expletive, as: il lui dit tout froidement, he told him (quite) cooly. Sometimes also, instead of quoique, très, entièrement, quelque, and in such case, it is sub-

ject to the following

RULE I. Tout, used instead of one of the above three words, does not alter its number, before an adjective masculine, as: les enfans, tout aimables qu'ils sont, children, although very amiable: ils sont tout

interdits, they are quite disconcerted.

RULE II. Tout, used for one of the above three words, takes neither gender nor number, before an adjective feminine, beginning with a vowel or h mute: but it takes both gender and number, before an adjective feminine, beginning with a consonant. We say: la vertu tout austère qu'elle paroît; ces images tout

amusantes qu'elles sent : but we ought to say: c'est une tête toute vide; ces dames, toutes belles, toutes

spirituelles qu'elles sont.

EXCEPTION. Tout takes neither gender nor number, before an adjective feminine, beginning with a consonant, when it is immediately followed by an adverb. Thus, we say: ces fleurs sont tout aussi fraîches que celles que vous avez; ces dames sont, tout ainsi, tout comme vous, belles, jeunes & spirituelles. In this sense, tout is but a mere expletive.

EXERCISE.

Children, amiable as they are, have, nevertheless, many faults which it is of importance to correct.

The philosophers of antiquity, although very much enlightened, have given us but very confused ideas of the deity, and very vague notions about the principal duties of the law

of nature.

These flowers, inodorous as they are, are not the less sought after.

Virtue, austere as it is, makes us enjoy real pleasures.

Fables, although very entertaining, yet do not truly interest us, but when they convey to us some useful instruction, under the veil of an ingenious allegory.

Although that absurd pedant is continually scribbling, yet his head is altogether empty.

Far be from us those maxims of flattery, that kings are born skilful

have nevertheless ne laisser pas d'avoir of importance essentiel

of nature inodorous naturel inodore

enjoy go

goûter de

convey

very.

donner

is scribbling être un écrivailleur

(he has not less in his head)

altogether tout

far be are born

loin naître and that their privileged souls come come out out of God's hands all wise and all learned.

learned

sortir savant

Those fountains glide quite gently upon agrass enamelled with flowers.

glide gently grass

couler doucement gazon

These peaches are quite as good as those of the south of France.

south

midi

Quelque que, joined to a substantive, either by itself. or accompanied by an adjective which is joined to it. takes the mark of the plural, as: quelques richesses que vous ayez, whatever riches you may have; quelques bonnes œuvres que vous fassiez, whatever good actions you may do; quelques peines affreuses que vous éprouviez, however horrid the pains you suffer. But, when joined to an adjective, separated from its substantive, it does not take the mark of the plural, as: tous les hommes, quelque opposés qu'ils soient, all men, however opposite they may be; ces actions, quelque belles qu'on les trouve, those actions, however fine they may find them.

We have seen that quelque que and quel que, joined to a substantive, have the same meaning, although they are not used indifferently one for the other. we place the pronoun before the substantive, we make use of quelque que, as: quelques richesses que vous ayez; but, if the substantive be after the que and the verb, then we make use of quel que in two separate words, as : quelles que soient les richesses que vous avez.

EXERCISE.

Whatever talents you may possess, sphatever advantages you may have received from nature and education, with whatever perfections you may be endowed, do not expect the suffrages but of a small number of men.

possess avoir

with be endowed pesséder s'attendre à

Whatever great services you may have rendered mankind, rather de-

rather depend compter plutôt pend upon their ingratitude than their acknowledgment.

However useful, however well-composed the works which you have published, yet think not that you will immediately gather the fruit of your labours: it is but by slow degrees that light introduces itself among men. The course of time is swift; but it seems to drag on, when it brings reason and truth along with it.

Whatever may be the obstacles which ignorance, prejudice and envy oppose to the true principles of an art, yet we ought never to be deterred from propagating them: the sun does not cease to shine, because its light hurts the eyes of night-birds.

Whatever be your birth, whatever be your riches and dignities, remember that you are frustrating the views of Providence, if you do not make use of them for the good of mankind.

§. V.

OF THE VERB.

On the Use of the two Auxiliaries.

We have mentioned (Chap. V.) what sorts of verbs are conjugated, in the compound tenses, with the auxiliary verb avoir, and what others are conjugated with etre. It now only remains for us to speak of some verbs, which take, sometimes avoir, and sometimes être, because some of them, either are attended with difficulties, or express some shades of

acknowledgment reconnoissance

immediately de suite
gather recueillir
by slow degrees avec
lenteur
among chez
swift rapide
to drag on (that it
drags on) se traîner
along with it à sa suite

to be deterred se rebuter propagating répandre shine éclairer its * the article hurts blesser night-birds oiseau de nuit

are frustrating frustrer (to do good to man-

kind)

ideas, which it is of importance to know. We shall only mention the last.

Il a sorti ce matin, when we mean that the person went out and is come in again. That expression is equivalent to this: il avoit sorti, il est rentré.

Il est sorti ce matin. when we mean he is not come in again.

N. B. Sortir also takes avoir, when it is followed by a regimen, as: avez-vous sorti mon cheval? on vous a sorti d'une fâcheuse affaire.

Some persons conjugate tomber with avoir, in some

instances; but it is a gross mistake.

Accourir, disparoître, croître, décroître, contrevenir, are conjugated indifferently with either of the auxiliaries.

Cette femme est accouchée heureusement, that woman has been safely delivered of a child.

Cette étoffe m'a convenu, this cloth has suited me.

Il a demeuré à Rome, he has lived at meaning that the person is no longer there.

Il est allé à Rome, he is gone to Rome, meaning that the person is not vet come back from there.

N. B. The verb aller is never conjugated, with any propriety, with the verb avoir, except in the third person.

Il a monté la rampe, he has ascended the stairs.

Il a descendu les degrés, he has descended the stairs.

Une sage-femme l'a accouchée, a midwife has delivered her.

Je suis convenu du prix de cette étoffe, I have agreed about the price of this cloth.

Il est demeuré à Rome, he is remained at Rome, meaning that the person is still there.

Il a été à Rome, he has been at Rome, meaning that the person was once there, and is now come back.

I! est monté, he is gone up.

Il est descendu, he is come down.

Il a passé la rivière, he has crossed the river.

Celui que vous eherchez a passé par ici, the person whom you seek has passed through here.

In these phrases, there is a regimen after the verb.

Ces braves gens ont péri malheureusement, those brave people have perished in a miserable manner.

Périr is better conjugated with *avoir*, when the meaning of the verb is general and undetermined.

L'orage est passé, the storm is over.

In these phrases, the verb is without a regimen.

Ces braves gens sont péris dans leur traversée en Amérique, these brave people have perished on their passage to America.

But better with étre, when it is attended with particular circumstances.

AGREEMENT OF THE VERB WITH ITS SUBJECT.

WE have seen that we are to put in the plural the verb which has for its object two subjects singular;

but to this rule we must make the following

EXCEPTIONS. 1°. Though a verb may relate to two subjects singular, yet we put that verb in the singular, when the two subjects are joined together by the conjunction ou, and it is the first that determines the agreement, when they are united by comme, aussibien que, autant que, &c. (See what we have said about l'un et l'autre).

EXAMPLES.

La séduction, ou la terreur, l'a entraîné dans le parti des rebelles.

Le roi, aussi bien que son ministère, veut le bien public.

Son honnêteté, autant que son esprit, le fait rechercher. L'envie, comme l'ambition, est une passion aveugle. Either seduction or terror, has drawn him into the party of the rebels.

The king, as well as his ministry, wishes for the public good.

His honesty, as much as his wit, makes him courted.

Envy, like ambition, is a blind passion.

This is conformable to the English construction, and therefore easily understood.

2°. The verb is likewise put in the singular, notwithstanding the plurals that precede it, either when there is an expression which collects all the substantives into one, such as, tout, ce, rien, &c. or the conjunction adversative mais is placed before the last substantive.

EXAMPLES.

Biens, dignités, honneurs, tout disparoît à la mort,

Jeux, conversations, spectacles, rien ne la distrait, Perfiates, noirceurs, incendies, massacres, con est là qu' une foible image, &c.

Non seviement toutes ses richesses et tous ses honneurs, mais toute sa vertu s'évanouit. Riches, dignities, honours, every thing vanishes before death.

Games, conversations, spectacles, nothing diverts her.

Perfidies, enormities, conflagrations, massacres, that is but a feeble representation, &c.

Not only all his riches and all his honours, but all his virtue vanishes.

This also we find to agree with the genius of the English language, and, therefore, to be attended with no kind of difficulty.

EXERCISE.

Either fear or impotency prevented them from moving.

The fear of death, or rather the love of life began to revive in his bosom.

Alcibiades, as well as Plato, was among the disciples of Socrates.

Lycurgus, like Solon, was a wise legislator.

Euripides, as much as Sophocles, contributed to the glory of the Athenians.

Riches, dignities, honours, glory, pleasure, every thing loses its charms from the moment we possess it, because none of those things can fill the heart of man.

impotency impuissance

began to revive se ré-

among au nombre de

voe on none rien those things tout cela

The gentle zephyrs which preserved, in that place, notwithstanding the scorching heat of the sun, a delightful coolness; springs gliding, with a sweet murmur, through meadows strewed with amaranths and violets; a thousand springing flowers which enamelled evergreen carpets; a wood of those tufted trees that bear golden apples, and the blossom of which, renewed every season, yields the sweetest of all perfumes; the warbling of birds, the continual prospect of a fruitful country; in a word, nothing of what till then had made him happy, could allay the sentiment of his grief.

preserved entretenir

scorching heat ardeur

strewed with semer de springing naissant carpets tapis

tusted tousfu golden (of gold) renewed (which renews) se renouveller every season (in) yields répandre prospect spectacle

allay arracher à the article

We have said (page 53), that grammarians had distinguished, among the substantives common, those which they have called *collective*, on account of some particular laws which some of these substantives follow in the language, and in imitation of them, we have formed the two classes, viz. the *collectives general*, and the *collectives partitive*.

The collectives general have nothing to distinguish them from substantives common, with regard to the laws of agreement; but the collectives partitive apparently break through those laws, in some instances. Therefore, we shall give the following

RULE. The verb, which relates to a collective partitive, is put in the plural, when that partitive is followed by the preposition de and a plural: but it is put in the singular, either when the partitive is followed by a regimen singular, or when it expresses a determinate quantity, or, lastly, when it presents an idea independent on the plural which follows it.

EXAMPLES.

La plupart des hommes sont The greatest part of men are

Bien prompis dans leurs jugemens,

Bien des philosophes se sont trompés.

very hasty in their judg-

Many philosophers have been mistaken.

But we ought to say:

Une infinité de peuple est accourue, (regimen singu-

La moitié des soldats a péri, (determinate quantity),

Le plus grand nombre des troupes a péri, (idea independent on the plural),

An immense number of people is come up, (flocked together).

One half of the soldiers has perished.

The greatest number of the troops has perished.

Thus, then, we see that the substantives partitive, la plupart, une infinité, une foule, un nombre, la plus grande partie, une sorte, &c. and the words signifying quantity, such as peu, beaucoup, assez, moins, plus, trop, tant, combien, and que used for combien, followed by a noun joined to them by the preposition de, have not the least influence over the verb, and that, consequently, it is not with them that the verb agrees, but with the noun which follows them.

OBSERVATION. The words infinité and la plupart, used by themselves, require the verb in the plural, as : une infinité pensent, la plupart sont d'avis. Some would extend this custom to peu and beaucoup; but it is wrong: these partitives cannot, with any degree of propriety, be used by themselves, unless the words by which they would be followed, were it not for the ellipsis, have been expressed before.

EXERCISE.

Many persons experience that human life is, every where, a state in which much is to be endured, and little to be enjoyed.

Many poets think that poetry is the art of uniting pleasure with truth. by calling imagination to the help of

Fero persons are reflecting that

much is (one has a great deal of pains, and little of real enjoyments).

on

time

time, like money, may be lost by unseasonable avarice.

So many years of familiarity were chains of iron which linked me to those men, who beset me every hour.

Hozo many wise men have thought that, to seelude one's self from the world, was to pull out the teeth of devouring animals, and to take away from the wicked the use of his poniard, from calumny its poisons, and from envy its serpents!

A company of young Phanicians of an uncommon beauty, clad in fine linen whiter than snow, danced a long while the dances of their own country, then those of Egypt, and lastly, those of Greece.

A troop of nymphs, crowned with flowers, whose lovely tresses flowed over their shoulders and waved with the wind, swam in shoals behind it.

At the time of the invasion of Spain, by the Moors, an innumerable multitude of people retired into the Asturias, and there proclaimed Pelagius king.

A third part of the energy remained on the field of battle; the rest surrendered at discretion.

The innumerable crowd of carriages which are to be seen in London during winter, astonishes foreigners.

The issue of the business which I have mentioned cannot but interest you.

unseasonable hors de

familiarity habitude linked lier beset obséder

io seclude one's self so retirer pull out arracher à to take away fromôter

company troupe clgd in et vêtu de

orun

trasses cheveu pendre quaved flotter toith au gré de savam shoat's foule

Moors Maure retired se retirer Asturias Asturies Pelagius Pélage

a third part un tiers enemy pl. surrendered se rendre

crowd quantité which are (active voice on)

issue suite business plura!

OBSERVATION. Some of the modern grammamarians will not admit of the two last exceptions to this rule, because in both these instances they will have us rather attend to logical, than to grammatical agreement. "Suppose," say they, "a person coming to tell us, that une vingtaine de soldats s'est noyée en passant une rivière, the grammatical agreement is certainly perfect; but is the logical agreement equally so? they, no doubt, mean to inform us, that twenty soldiers have been drowned, but is it to une vingtaine that our mind recurs? or is it not rather to des soldats, to the number of vingt? It must be confessed, that the principal idea is soldats, and several soldats: it is therefore the plural: then, if they should ask, what is the precise number of soldats, the answer is, vingt soldats. Now, whether it be vingt, or une vingtaine, it is always to several that our mind recurs; it is this idea, therefore, that commands the verb to assume the form of the plural. The word vingtaine, and even vingt, are only accessory, and it is *les soldats* and *plusieurs soldats* that we hold as the principal object. The agreement here is not in the words, but in the ideas." Therefore, they will have us say, la moitié de ses forces lui restent encore; toute sorte de fruits ne sont pas également bons à manger; la plus grande partie des abricots sont sains e cette année; mais il faut les choisir; car une partie de ce fruit est dangereux. These arguments have great force; but usage seems to authorize the two exceptions.

As for general collectives, they never govern a plural, unless they themselves have the form of the plural; very different from the English general collectives, which, although in the singular number, yet, sometimes, require the verb to be in the plural: the people rejoice in that which should give them sorrow: in the days of youth, the multitude eagerly pursue pleasure as their chief good. We say sometimes, because regard must be had to the idea suggested in the mind by the general collective, as the same word may, at one time, require the singular, and at another, the

plural. The committee were divided in their sentiments: the committee was very full, and its judgment became a law. This distinction is never made in French.

PLACE OF THE SUBJECT WITH REGARD TO THE VERB.

We have seen that the subject of a verb is either a noun or a pronoun, and that this subject ought always to be expressed in French. It now only remains to know its place relatively to the verb.

Rule. The subject, whether noun or pronoun,

is generally placed before the verb.

EXAMPLES.

L'ambition effrénée de quelques honmes a, dans tous les témps, été la vrair cause des révolutions des états;

Quand nous nageons dans l'abondance, il est bien rare que nous nous occupions des maux d'autrui, The inordinate ambition of a few men has, in all ages, been the true cause of the revolutions of empires.

When we swim in abund-

ance, we seldom think of the miseries of others.

EXERCISE.

Youth is full of presumption; it hopes every thing from its own self: although frail, it thinks itself all-sufficient, and that it has nothing to fear.

Commerce is like certain springs; if you attempt to divert their course, you dry them up.

It is enough that falsehood is falsehood, to be unworthy of a man who speaks in the presence of God, and who owes every thing to truth.

The ambition and avarice of man are the sources of his unhappiness.

They punished, in Crete, three vices which have remained unpunished in all other nations: ingratitude, dissimulation and avarice.

full of presumption présomptueux hopes se promettre itself all-sufficient pouvoir tout that it has inf-1

springs source
attempt vouloir
to
dry up faire tarir
it is enough
falsehood mensonge
in ca

punished ind-2 have remained etre in chex Like a lion of Numidia, stung by like stung ly, cruel hunger, and rushing upon a flock hunge vorer of feeble sheep; he tears, he slays, he swims in blood.

tike semblable å
stung by,&c. (that cruel
hunger stings) dévorer
rushing (which rushes
upon) entrer dans
teans déchirer
slays égorger

EXCEPTIONS. 1°. In interrogative sentences, the pronoun subject is always placed after the verb, and the noun subject is placed after the verb, only when it is by itself; but it keeps its place before the verb, when a corresponding pronoun is to serve to mark the interrogation.

EXAMPLES.

Que dit-on? irai-je à la campagne? viendrez-vous? que pense ce profond physicien? But we ought to say: les hommes se rendent-ils toujours à la force de la raison?

This construction being so different from the English, especially in the last example, Do men always yield to the force of reason? great attention ought to be

paid to it by the learner.

OBSERVATION. In interrogative sentences, when the verb which precedes il, elle, on, ends with a vowel, we put the letter t between that verb and the pronoun, as: arrive-t-il? viendra-t-elle? aime-t-on les vauriens? When je is after the verb, ending with e mute, we change that e mute into é acute, as: aimé-je? puissé-je? But, as usage does not always admit je after the verb, we must take another turn, and say, in interrogating: est-ce que je cours? est-ce que je dors?

EXERCISE.

Have you forgotten all that Providence has done for you? how have you escaped the shafts of your enemies? how have you been preserved from the dangers which surrounded you on all sides? could you be so blind as not to acknowledge and adore the

escaped échapper 2 shafts trait preserved garantir on all sides de toutes parts so as assez pour all-powerful hand that has miracu- saved co

conserve r

lously saved you?

What will posterity say of you, if, instead of devoting to the happiness of mankind, the great talents which you have received from nature, you make use of them only to deceive and corrupt them?

Do not the misfortunes which we experience often turn to prosperities?

Why are the works of nature soperfect? Because each work is a whole, and that she labours upon an eternal plan, from which it never deviates. Why, on the contrary, are the productions of man so imperfect? It is because the human mind being unable to create any thing, and incapable of embracing the universe at a single glance, can produce, only after having been fecundated by experience and meditation.

devoting consacrer

deceive Egarer

experience éprouver

because (it is)

being unable ne pouvoir incapable (being not ablo):
at de glance vue can *
fecundated fécondé

2°. In the incidental sentence which expresses that we are quoting somebody's words, as: je meur's innocent, a dit Louis XVI. I die innocent, said Louis XVI. Je le veux bien, dit-il, I am very willing, said he.

3°. With an impersonal verb, and these words, tel, ainsi. Il est arrivé un grand malheur, (there has happened) a great misfortune has happened. Tel étoit l'acharnement du soldat, que, &c. such was the eager fury of the soldier, that, &c. Ainsi finit cette sanglante tragédie, thus ended that bloody tragedy.

4°. When the subject is used to express a wish, or for quand même and a conditional, as: puissent tous les peuples se convaincre de cette vérité! may all nations be convinced of this truth! dussé-je y périr, j'irai, were, I to perish there, I will go.

C c 3

EXERCISE.

is

the

made

True glory, said he, is not out of humanity: whoever prefers his own glory to the feelings of humanity, is a monster of pride, and not a man.

There have happened, for these ten years, so many events, out of all probability, that posterity will find it very difficult to credit them.

Such was the incorruptible Phocion, who answered to the deputies of Alexander, who were telling him that this powerful monarch loved him as the only honest man; well, then, let him allow me to be and appear so-

Thus ended, by the humiliation of Athens, that dreadful war of twentyseven years, to which ambition gave rise, which hatred made attrocious, and which was as fatal to the Grecks, as their ancient confederation had proved advantageous to them.

Grant the gods that you may never experience such misfortunes !

May you, O wise old man! in a repose interrupted by sweet occupations, enjoy the past, lay hold of the present, and charm your latter days with the hope of eternal felicity !

What is not the power of the gods! were you at the bottom of the abyss, the power of Jupiter could draw you from it; were you in Olympus, seeing

feelings

se trouver

sentiment

there have happened il se passer for denuis these probability vraisem-

blance will find very difficult avoir bien de la peine to credit ajouter foi

loved cherir honest man homme de bien zvell ho! then (donc to be placed after allow) to be so être tel and to appear so paroîended (was terminatto gave rise faire naître

had proved être

rendre

faire experience éprouver de subj-1

lay hold of saisir with d٤

power puissance were you could pouvoir

the stars under your feet, Jupiter stars could plunge you to the bottom of the abyss, or precipitate you into the flames of black Tartarus.

astres

5°. When the subject is followed by several words which are dependent upon it. This exception is strictly to be attended to, when the words which depend on the subject form an incidental proposition, which, by its length, might make us lose sight of the relation of the verb to the subject, as: là, au milieu des prairies émaillées de fleurs, serpentent mille divers ruisseaux, qui distribuent par-tout une eau pure et limpide, there, through meadows enamelled with flowers, glide a thousand various rivulets, distributing everywhere a pure limpid water. Clearness here requires that the subject should be so displaced.

Sometimes, however, this displacing of the subject is only the effect of taste. This happens, when we wish to avoid an unharmonious fall, as: sacrifice où coula le sang de mille victimes; or, when in the middle of a speech, an orator wishes to rouse the attention of his hearers by a bold and unexpected turn, as: déjà pour l'honneur de la France, étoit entré dans l'administration des affaires, un homme plus grand par son esprit et par ses vertus que par ses dignités, already, for the honour of France, had come into administration, a man greater by his understanding and virtues, than by his dignities.

GOVERNMENT OF VERES.

We have already observed, that the regimen of a verb, when it is a noun, is generally placed after the verb: but to this rule we have one exception, beside those which we shall mention in the next chapter.

Exception. In an interrogative sentence, the regimen is placed before the verb, when it is joined to an absolute pronoun, as: quel objet voyez-vous? what object do you see? à quelle science vous appliquez-vous? to what science do you apply yourself? de quelle affaire vous occupez-vous? about what business are you employed?

OBSERVATION. In French, a verb can never have two meanings direct; therefore, when a verb has two regimens, one of them must necessarily be-preceded by the words à or de. Donnez ce livre à vatre frère, give that book to your brother. On a accusé Cicéron d'imprudence et de foiblesse, they have accused Cicero of imprudence and weakness. Thus, this line of Racine is incorrect:

Ne vous informez pas ce que je deviendrai.

It ought to be de ce que.

According to the natural chain of ideas, it should seem, that the object ought to be placed before the end: nevertheless, as the clearness of the sentence does not allow it in all cases, we are to observe this

RULE. When a verb has two regimens, the shorter is generally placed first; but, if they be of equal length, the regimen direct ought to be placed before the indirect.

EXAMPLES ..

Les hypocrites s'étudient à parer le vice des dehors de la wertu,

Les hypocrites s'étudient. à parer des dehors de la vertu les vices les plus honteux et les plus décriés;

L'ambition sacrifie le présent à l'avenir; mais la volupté sacrifie l'avenir au présent, Hypocrites make it their study-to-adorn vice with the outside of virtue,

Hypocrites make it their study to adorn, with the outside of virtue, the most shameful and most odious vices.

Ambition sacrifices the present to the future, but voluptuousness sacrifices the future to the present.

superbe

vouloir

repaître

EXPRCISE.

Famous examples teach us, that God teach apprendre has hurled down from their thrones; hurled down renverser princes who have contemned his laws:

he reduced to the condition of beasts,
the haughty Nebuchadnezzar, who haughty
wanted to usury divine honours.

vanted

Miserable he man who feeds his feeds

mind with chimeras!

Our interest should prompt us to prompt porter

prefer virtue to vice, wisdom to voluptuousness, and modesty to vanity.

We have already seen (page 231) that a noun may be under the government of two adjectives, provided those adjectives do not require different regimens. This rule, which is of great importance in the French language, extends to verbs and prepositions. That foreigners, who are accustomed to a different con-struction, should fail in it, is not to be wondered at, since some French authors of great estimation have fallen into that error.

Rule. A noun may be governed at once by two verbs, provided those verbs do not require different re-

gimens.

EXAMPLES.

We ought to love and respect On doit aimer & respecter les That general attacked and Ce genéral attaqua & prit la ville. took the city.

But we must not say: cet officier attaqua & se rendit maître de la ville, that officer attacked and made himself master of the city. We ought to give a different turn to the sentence, by placing the noun afterthe first verb, and en before the second, as: cet officier attaqua la ville & s'en rendit maitre, that officer attacked the city and made himself master of it.

This, in fact, is strictly conformable to the genius of the English language. For, although writers of great repute will make one noun be governed by two verbs of different regimens, yet their practice, in this instance, is contrary to taste and elegance. To say: he laughs at, and cares not for, the criticisms of the ignorant, is a turn very common, but very inelegant.

EXERCISE.

Luxury is like a torrent, which earries away and overturns every thing it meets.

Nothing can resist the action of time: in the long run, it undermines, alters or destroys every thing.

carries away entraîner averturns renverser everything tout ce que can in the long run

longue undermines

At Sparta, public education had two objects: the first, to harden the bodies by fatigue; the second, to excite and nourish in the minds the love of the country, and the enthusiasm of great things.

harden endurers by à

About the place of the personal pronoun, when regimen, see what has been said (page 249).

OF THE USE, PROPER, OR ACCIDENTAL, OF MOODS AND TENSES.

Indicative.

The present is used to express an actual state, as: je suis ici, I am here: an invariable state, as: Diewest de toute éternité, God is of all eternity: a future near at hand, as: il est demain fête, to-morrow is a holiday: or even a preterit, when we mean to make a sort of a representative picture of what would have been a mere narration. Thus, we find in Racine: j'ai vu votre malheureux fils traîné par ses chevaux, I have seen your unhappy son drawn by his horses; but, suddenly, passing from the preterit to the present, he adds: il veut les rappeller, & sa voix les effraie, he wishes to recall them, and his voice frightens them.

EXERCISE.

He is in his chamber, where he is felaxing his mind from the fatigue of business, by some instructive and agreeable reading.

Truth, eternal by its nature, is im-

I never let a day pass without devoting an hour or two in reading the

Is it this week that the new piece comes out?

is relaxing délasser

reading lecture

by de
immutable
let
devoting consacrer

comes out on donnet

sight présence ind-2 The armies were insight : nothing nothing was, &c. on was heard on all sides but dreadful the engagement began cries: the engagement began. en mediately a cloud of arrows darkens cloud arrorus the air and covers the combatants; darkens nothing is, &c. nothing is heard but the doleful cries doleful of the dying, or the clattering of the clattering conflict groans arms of those who fell in the conbeneath flict; the earth groans beneath a heap heap rivers of dead bodies, and rivers of blood stream there is nothing in, &c. stream every where; there is nothing throng in this confused throng of men enraenraged ged against one another, but slaughter, slaughter despair, revenge and brutal fury.

The imperfect is used, 1°. To denote an action often repeated at a time which is past, as : quand j'étois à Paris, j'allois souvent aux Champs Elisées, when I was at Paris, I often went to the Elysian Fields. a past which has no relation to the present, especially in narrations, as: Rome étoit. d'abord gouvernée par des rois, Rome was at first governed by kings.

When I sugs at Paris, I went every morning to take a walk in the Champs Elisées, or the Bois de Boulogne; afterwards 1 came home, where I was busp till dinner, either in reading or writing; and, in the evening, I generally went to divert myself at the French Theatre or the Opera.

take a walk se promener came home rentrer chez zvas busv s'occuper reading (by the verb) divert himself se dé-French Theatre Comédie Françoise

ne que ind-2

venir aux

mains ind-3

nuée trait

obscurcir

plus que

plaintif

bruit

mêlée

gémir

monceau

ruisseau

ce être dans

coulcr

amas

acharné

massacre

SOUS

on ne

When I was in the flower of age, like the light butterfly, I fluttered from object to object, without being able to fix myself to any thing: eager after pleasure, I seized every thing that presented its image; alas! how far was I then to foresee that I should one day deplore with so much bitterness the loss of those fine days!

Shortly after Abraham, the know-ledge of the true God, appeared yet in Palestine and Egypt. Melchisedec, king of Salem, was the pontif of the most high 2 God! Abimelech, king of Gerar, and his successor of the same name, feared God, swore in his name, and admired his power. But in Moses' time, they adored even the beasts and reptiles. All was God, but God himself.

butterfly papillon
fluttered voler
being able pouvoir
eager after avide de

its image en art.
image
how que
with so much bitterness
(so bitterly)

savore jurer

they on jusqu'ê but excepté

In French, the preterit definite and the preterit indefinite are not used indifferently one for the other. We make use of the preterit definite, when speaking of a time which is entirely past, and of which nothing is left, as: je fis un voyage à Bath le mois dernier, I took a journey to Bath last month; j'écrivis hier à Rome, I wrote yesterday to Rome. That nothing of that time may remain, there must be the interval of, at least, one day. This is most in use in historical style.

The preterit indefinite is used either for a past indeterminate, or for a past of which something still remains, as: j'ai voyagé en Italie, I have travelled in Italy; j'ai déjeuné ce matin à Londres & diné à Richmond, I (have) breakfasted this morning in Lon-

don, and dined at Richmond.

The

The latter part of this rule is not observed in English.

Some writers, and persons that speak well, make use, in many instances, of either the preterit definite or the preterit indefinite, to express a time entirely past. They say: j'ai écrit, or j'écrivis hier; j'ai été, or je fus malade la semaine dernière. But, however general this practice may be, it is better to give to these preterits their true destination.

The preterit definite is sometimes used instead of a future near at hand, as: avez-vous bientôt fini? have you soon done? oui, j'ai fini dans le moment, yes, I

have done in a moment.

EXERCISE.

Amenophis conceived the design of making his son a conqueror. He set about it after the manner of the Egyptians, that is, with great ideas. All the children, who were born on the same day as Sesostris, were brought to court by order of the king: he had them educated as his own children, and with the same care as Sesostris. When he reas grown up, he got him to make his apprenticeship in a war against the Arabs : this young prince learned there to bear hunger and thirst, and subdued that nation till then invincible. He afterwards attacked Lybia and conquered it. After these successes, he formed the project to subdue the whole world. In consequence of this, he entered Ethiopia, which he made tributary. He continued his victories in Asia. Jerusalem was the first to feel the

making faire de set about it s'y prendre after à ideas pensée on s

brought amener had educated faire élever

grovon up grand got to make faire faire aprenticeship apprentissage in par

of this *
cntered entrer dans
made rendre

force of his arms; the rash Rehoboam could not resist him, and Sesostris carried away the riches of Solomon. He penetrated into the Indies, farther than Hercules and Bacchus, and farther than Alexander has done since. The Seythians obeyed him as far as the Tanais; Armenia and Cappadocia were subject to him. In a word, he extended his empire from the Ganges to the Danube.

I have travelled this year in Italy, where I have had an opportunity of sceing several master-pieces of antiquity, and where I have made a valuable collection of scarce medals. I have there admired the perfection to which they have brought architecture, painting and music; but what has pleased me most there, is the beauty of the climate of Naples.

since depuis as far as jusqu'à

Cappadocia Cappadoce

an opportunity occasion
master-pieces chefdœuvre
scarce rare

has pleased me most faire le plus de plaisir

The two preterits anterior are made use of in the same manner as the two preceding preterits, but they are always accompanied by a conjunction or an adverb of time, as: je suis sorti des que j'ai eu déné, I went out as soon as I had dined; j'eus fini hier à midi, I had done yesterday at noon.

The pluperfect denotes that a thing was done before another, which was itself done at a time which is past, as: j'avois soupé, quand il entra, I had supped, when

he came in.

EXERCISE.

As soon as Cesar had crossed the Rubicon, he had no longer to deliberate; he was obliged to conquer or to die.

As soon as the great Sesostris had had his ambition 2 satisfied, 1 by the

crossed passer
longer plus
reas obliged devoir

conquest of so many empires, he returned into Egypt, where he devoted the whole of the day to administer an exact justice to his people, and, in the evening, he refreshed himself by holding conferences with the learned, er by conversing with honest people.

Those who had contributed most to his elevation on the throne of his ancestors, were those who laboured with the most eagerness to precipitate him from it.

I had only received, like most of the grandees, an education, in which I had imbibed nothing but sentiments of pride and insensibility; that is, they had done every thing in their power, to stifle in me the happy and beneficent dispositions which I had received from nature.

the ruhole of the day jour entier administer délasser refreshed by holding conferences a s'entretenir people gens

acharneeagerness ment

grandee grand imbibed puiser

they in their power (that was in their power) poliveir stifle beneficent bienfaisant

Foreigners find the use of these different preterits attended with great difficulty, but this is owing to their not being sufficiently acquainted with the nature of the relation which they express.

The imperfect denotes a time which is past, though present with regard to another, as: je scupois quand

il entra, I was supping when he came in.

The preterit definite denotes a time in which an action was passing, but a time of which nothing is left, as : je dînai hicr à trois heures, I dined yesterday at tliree o'clock.

The preterit indefinite denotes a time in which an action was passing, but a time which still continues, as : j'ai diné aujourd'hui à trois heures, I have dined to-day at three o'clock.

The preterit anterior definite denotes a time in which a thing was done, but a time of which nothing is left, as : j'eus diné hier à quatre heures, I had dined

vesterday at four o'clock.

The preterit anterior indefinite denotes a time in which a thing was done, but a time of which something is still left, as: j'ai eu diné aujour d'hui à quatre heures, I (have) had dined to-day at tour o'clock.

The pluperfeet denotes a time anterior to another time, which is itself anterior to the present, as : j'avois dîné, quand il entra, I had dined when he came in.

We read in Marmontel:

Célicour, à l'âge de Celicour, at the age of quinze ans, avoit été dans fifteen, had been in the le monde ce qu'on appelle world what is called a lit-

tle prodigy. un petit prodige.

The author employs the form of the pluperfect, because he speaks of a period of time anterior to all those which he is going to mention, and which are themselves anterior to the time in which he is relating

the story.

Il faisoit des vers les plus galans du monde; il n'y avoit pas dans le voisinage une jolie femme qu'il n'eût célébrée: c'étoit dommage de laisser tant de talens enfouis dans une petite ville; Paris devoit en être le théâtre.

He composed the most agreeable love-verses imaginable: there was not a pretty woman in the neighbourhood that he had not celebrated: it was pity to let so many talents be buried in a little town; Paris was the theatre that ought to exhibit them.

Here the author makes use of the imperfect, because he speaks of a period of time which was present with regard to that which he has already mentioned: he expresses the actual state of Celicour at that period.

envoyer.

Et l'on fit si bien, que And they contrived son père se résolut de l'y matters so, that his father determined to send him thither.

Now, the author passes to the preterit definite, because he is no longer speaking of what Celicour was used to do, but of what he did at a time past, and of

which nothing is left.

Ce père étoit un honnéte homme, qui aimoit l'esprit sans en avoir, & qui admiroit, sans savoir pourquoi, tout ce qui venoit de la capitale. Il avoit même des relations littéraires, & du nombre de ses correspondans étoit un connoisseur nommé Mr, de Fintac. This father was a good sort of a man, who was fond of wit, without having any, and admired, without knowing why, every thing that came from the metropolis. Nay, he even had some literary connexions, and among his correspondents was a connoisseur of the name of Fintac.

Here again, the author resumes the form of the imperfect, because he is now speaking of the habitual state of Celicour's father in his little town, and because the author in this passage, merely relates what that father was doing at a time past, which has no kind of relation to the present.

Ce fut principalement à lui que Célicour fut recommandé.

It was particularly tohim that Celicour was recommended.

The form of the preterit definite is now resumed, because this is an action passed at a time of which nothing is left, &c. Would foreigners take the trouble thus to *decompound* the phrases, we make no doubt that they would soon get into the habit of using our preterits according to their true meaning.

EXERCISE.

God, who had created his angels in holiness, would have their happiness to depend upon them: they might insure their felicity by giving themselves willingly to their creator; but they delighted in themselves, and not in God: immediately those spirits of light became spirits of darkness.

There is a letter which Philocles
Dd3

have their happiness
to depend (that their happiness) dépendre subj-2)
might pouvoir

delighted in se plaire
en
of light luminoux
dankness there is voils

has written to a friend of his, about his project of making himself king of Carpathus. I perused that letter, and it seemed to me to be the hand of Philocles. They had perfectly imitated his writing. This letter threw me into a strange surprise: I was reading it again and again, and could not persuade myself that it was written by Philocles, as I recalled to my mind the affecting marks which he had given me of his disinterestedness and integrity.

Those who had professed the greatest zeal for the state and my person did not think themselves obliged to undeceive me, after so terrible an example. I myself was afraid lest truthshould break through the cloud, and reach me in spite of all my flatterers. I felt within myself that it would have raised in me a bitter remorse. My effeminacy, and the dominion which a treacherous minister had gained over me, threw me into a kind of despair of ever recovering my liberty.

Carpathus Carpathie

about

Carpathus Carpathie
to be * de
they on

again and again sans cesse written by de. as I recalled(recalling)

integrity bonne foi had professed montrer

think not themselves obliged to se croire dispense de was afraid lest craindre que break through percer subi-2 reach parvenir jusqu'à in spite of malgré raised in causer à effeminacy mollesse dominion ascendant treacherous perfide gained prendre threw plonger recovering rentrer en

Grammarians have also distinguished two preterits, which they have called supercompound: those are: j'eus cu diné, j'avois eu diné. But these tenses are very seldom used, since it sometimes happens that the first presents the same meaning as the preterit anterior definite, and the second the same as the pluperfect.

The difference between the two future tenses is, that the period of time expressed by the future absolute, may or may not be determined, as: j'irai, or j'irai demain à la campagne, while, in the future anterior,

the time is necessarily determined, as: j'aurai fini, quand vous arriverez.

EXERCISE.

I shall shortly go into the country, where I intend simpling, in order to make myself perfect in the knowledge of botany.

Remember that youth is but a flower which will be dried up almost as soon as open. Thou wilt see thyself gradually changed. The lively graces, the sweet pleasures, strength, health and joy, will vanish like a fine dream; nothing but the sad remembrance of them will be left thee.

I shall, next year, take a journey into Greece, and I ampreparing myself to it by reading that of the young Anacharsis.

When I have done reading the divine writings of Homer and Virgil, and my mind has imbibed their beauties, I shall read Statius, Lucan, Milton, Ariosto, Tasso, Camoens and Voltaire.

I shall shortly go ne
pas tarder à aller
simpling herboriser
make myself perfect
se perfectionner
botany botanique

open éclorre gradually insensiblement lively riant

nothing will be left
il en rester
take faire

reading lecture de

have done achever de

imbibed se pénétrer de

CONDITIONAL

There are two different ways of expressing the conditional past, and this difference ought to be properly attended to. The first denotes in a more precise manner the period of time in which an action would have been undertaken, and the second that in which it would have been completed. J'aurois fait, means, I would have set myself about doing, and J'eusse fait, means, the thing would be done.

We make use of the conditional:

19. To express a wish, as: je serois, or, j'aurois

été content de réussir dans cette affaire, I should like. or, I should have liked to have succeeded in that business.

2°. With si, if, whether, which expresses a doubt. as: demandez-lui s'il seroit venu avec nous, supposé qu'il n'eût pas eu affaire, ask him whether he would

have come with us, had he not been busy.

3°. Before, or after the imperfect, or pluperfect of the indicative, as: nous nous épargnerions bien des peines, si nous savions modérer nos désirs, we would save ourselves a deal of trouble, did we know how to moderate our desires. Vous auriez été plus heureux, si vous aviez suivi mes conseils, you would have been more happy, if you had followed my advice.

40. With quand, used instead of si, or quoique; but then, the verbs must be in the same conditional, as: quand l'avare posséderoit tout l'or du monde, il ne seroit pas encore content, were the miser to possess all the gold in the word, still he would not be

satisfied.

5°. Lastly, for various tenses of the indicative, as: croiriez-vous votre fils ingrat? could you think your son ungrateful? which means: croyez-vous, &c. l'auriez-vous soupçonné d'un tel vice? could you have suspected him of such a vice? which means: l'auezvous, &c. pourquoi violeroit-il un des devoirs les plus saints? why should he violate one of the most sacred duties? which means: pourquoi violera-t-il, &c.

EXERCISE.

A dupe to my imagination, I should	a	*
have been lost, but for you, in my search after truth.	lost	de s'égarer
But for your counsels, I should have	but for failed	sans échouer

But for your counsels, I should have failed in this undertaking.

I should be glad to see you united, happy and comfortable.

Enquire whether he would have consented to those conditions, in case he should have thought himself able

comfortable tranquille enquire s'informer whether thought himself croire

ro fulul them.

What were not the felicity of man, if he always sought his happiness in himself.

If we gave to infancy none but just and clear notions, there would be a much less considerable number of false wits in the world.

Had Alexander conquered the whole world, ambition would not have been satisfied: he would still have found himself confined in it.

Could you believe him vain enough to aspire to that high degree of honour?

Could you ever have thought him capable of deserting the good cause, to go and side with the rebels?

Would you renounce being useful to the present generation, because envy fastens on you?

(when Alexander would have conquered)

confined trop à l'étroit

deserting abandonner
to go and side se ranger sous les drapeaux de
renounce renoncer à
fastens s'attacher
on you à vos pas

OBSERVATION ON THE USE OF THE CONDI-TIONAL AND FUTURE.

Foreigners are very apt to use the future or the conditional after si, when meaning supposé que. They say: j'irai demain à la campagne, s'il fera beau, I shall go to morrow into the country, if it be fine weather; vous auriez vu le roi, si vous seriez venu, you would have seen the king if you had come. The impropriety of this construction will be obviated by the following

Rule. When a verb is preceded by si, meaning supposé que, we use the present, instead of the future absolute; the preterit indefinite, instead of the future anterior; the imperfect instead of the conditional present, and the pluperfect instead of the conditional past.

EXAMPLES.

J'irai demain à la campagne s'il fait beau,

Il aura eu l'avantage, s'il a suivi nos conseils,

Je serois content, si je vous voyois appliqué, J'aurois été content, si je vous avois vu appliqué, I shall go to-morrow into the country, if it be fine weather.

He will have had the advantage, if he have followed your advice.

I should be pleased, if I saw you applying to study.

I should have been pleased, if I had seen you intent on your studies.

OBSERVATION. This rule obtains not, either when si implies doubt, uncertainty, as: je ne sais s'il viendra, or with the second conditional past, as: vous m'eussiez trouvé si vous fussiez venu ce matin.

EXERCISE.

A young man who is just entering the career of letters, will conciliate the benevolence of the public, if he consider his first successes only as an encouragement to do better.

That absurd criticism will have amused only fools or evil-minded people, if one have observed the spirit that pervades the whole, and the manner in which it is written-

Life would be attended with many more sweets and charms, if men, instead of tearing one another to pieces, did but form a society of brethren.

The Athenians would have found in the young Alcibiades the only man capable of insuring their superiority in Greece, had not that vain thoughtless people forced him through an unjust, or at least, imprudent condemis just entering débuter carecr carrière vill conciliate s'attirer consider regarder

fools sot
evil-minded people
inéchant
observed faire attentiou
pervades the vehole
regner d'un bout à
l'autre
attended voith avoir

tearing one another topieces s'entre-déchirer

superiority prépondérance thoughtless léger

nation to banish himself from his country.

I know not whether reason will know savoir soon triumph over prejudice and ignorance, but I am certain it will be

so, sooner or later. Rome had never attained that high attained parvenir à degree of splendour and glory that astonishes us, had it not extended its conquests, as much by its policy as politique policy by its arms.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

We have said that there are conjunctions which govern the indicative, and others which govern the subjunctive. We call principal proposition the phrase after which the conjunction is placed, and incidental, or subordinate proposition, that which is placed after the conjunction. In this sentence: je crois que vous aimez à jouer, je crois is the principal proposition, and vous aimez à jouer is the subordinate proposition: que is the conjunction that unites the two phrases.

GENERAL RULE. The verb of the subordinate proposition must be put in the indicative, when the verb of the principal proposition expresses affirmation, in a direct, positive and independent manner: but it is put in the subjunctive, when that of the principal proposi-

tion expresses doubt, wish or uncertainty.

We say: je sais qu'il est surpris, I know he is surprised; je crois qu'il viendra, I believe he will come. But we ought to say: je doute qu'il soit surpris, I doubt his being surprised. Je doute qu'il vienne, 1 doubt his coming. Je souhaite qu'il réussisse, I wish he may succeed. 'Je tremble qu'il ne succombe, I tremble lest he should fail.

EXERCISE.

The glory which has been ascribed which has, &c. on ascribed to them (Egyptians) of being the grateful reconnoissant most grateful of all men shows that

they were likewise the most sociable.

In Egypt, if they proved that the conduct of a dead man had been bad, they condemned his memory, and he was denied burial.

I am sure that, with moderation, gentleness and civility, you will disarm even envy itself.

The new philosophers say that colour is a sensation of the soul.

I believe you are as honest and disinterested as you seem to be.

I doubt whether the Romans would ever have triumphed over the Gauls, if the different chiefs of this warlike people had not been disunited.

I could wish that the love which we ought to have one for another were the principle of all our actions, as it is the basis of all virtues.

Fear lest it should be said that you feed upon chimeras, and that you take the shadow for the reality.

The new philosophers will have light to be an accident of the soul.

I will have you to be as honest and disinterested as you seem to be.

they on man *
was denied priver de
burial sépulture

honnêteté

paroître le

civility

seem2

sensation sentiment

it on ne feed upon se repaître de

light to be (that light be)

RELATIONS WHICH THE TENSES OF THE INDICAIVE HAVE ONE TO ANOTHER.

Rule. When the first verb is in the imperfect, the preterit, or the pluperfect, and the second denotes a transient action, this second verb is put in the imperfect, if we mean to express a present, as; je croyois que vous aimiez l'étude, I thought you loved study: in the pluperiect, if we mean to express a past, as: il m'assura qu'il n'avoit jamais tant ri, he assured me that

that he had never laughed so much: and in the present of the conditional, if we mean to express a future absolute, as: Platon disoit que les peuples seroient heureux, si la sagesse étoit le seul objet des ministres, Plato was saying that nations would be more happy, if wis-

dom were the sole object of ministers.

But, although the first verb may be in some of these tenses, yet the second is always put in the present, when this second verb expresses a thing which is true at all times, as: je vous disois, je vous ai dit, je vous avois dit, que la santé fait la félicité du corps, & le savoir celle de l'ame, I was telling you, I have told you, I had told you, that health constitutes the happiness

of the body, and knowledge that of the soul.

OBSERVATION. In phrases where the imperfect is preceded by que, it denotes, sometimes a past, sometimes a present. It denotes a past, when the verb which is joined to it by the conjunction que, is in the present or the future, as: vous savez, or vous saurez que le peuple Romain étoit quesi avide qu'ambitieux, you know, or you will know, or you must know, that the Romans were a people as greedy as ambitious. But it denotes a present, when the verb which precedes it is in the imperfect, one of the preterits, or the pluperfect, as: on disoit, on a dit, on avoit dit que Phocion étoit le plus grand & le plus honnête homme de son temps, it was said, it has been said, it had been said. that Phocion was the greatest and most honest man of his age; dès qu'on eut appris à Athènes qu'Alcibiade étoit à Lacédémone, on se repentit de la précipitation avec laquelle on l'avoit condamné, as soon as they had heard at Athens that Alcibiades was at Lacedemon. they repented the blind haste with which they had condemned him.

Nevertheless, the imperfect denotes a past, in this last instance, when it denotes an action which was past before that which is expressed by the first verb, as: si vous aviez lu l'histoire des temps héroiques, vous sauriez que ces hommes dont on a fait des demidieux, étoient des chefs féroces & barbares, dignes à

peine du nom d'homme, had you read the history of heroic times, you would know that those men who have been made demi-gods of, were ferocious and barbarous chiefs, scarcely deserving the name of man.

EXERCISE.

I thought you were not ignorant that, to teach others an art or a science, one needs to have experience and skill. were ignorant ignorer teach instruire de necds avoir besoin

I had been told that your sweetest occupation was to form your taste, your heart and your understanding.

I had, &c. (by the active voice) on

Darius, in his rout, being reduced to the necessity of drinking water muddy and infected by dead bodies, affirmed that he never had drunk with so much pleasure.

being *

Care has been taken to inculcate to

muddy bourbeux

me, from infancy, that I should succeed in the world, only in proportion as I should join to the desire of pleasing, a great deal of gentleness and civility.

care has, &c. (active voice) on avoir in proportion autant

Ovid has said, that study softens the manners and rubs off every thing that is found in us rude and barbarous.

rubs off effacer

is found se trouver de

You know that those pretended heroes, whom Pagan antiquity has made gods of, were only barbarous and ferocious kings, who overran the earth, not so much to conquer, as to ravage it, and who left every where traces of their fury and of their vices.

overran parcourir not so much moins his eloquence was like a thunderbolt, thunderbolt founder as, which nothing could resist.

As soon as Aristides had said, that the proposition of Themistocles was unjust, the whole people exclaimed, exclaimed that they must not think of it any they must longer.

exclaimed s'écrier they must falloir

ages

Had you read the history of the early ages, you would know that Egypt was the most enlightened country in the universe, and whence knowledge spread into Greece and the circumjacent countries.

suhence celui d'uli
circumjasent circumsisin
countries l'on

temps

RELATIONS WHICH THE TENSES OF THE SUE-JUNCTIVE HAVE TO THOSE OF THE INDICA-TIVE.

Rule I. When the verb of the principal proposition is in the present or the future, we put in the present of the subjunctive, that of the subordinate proposition, if we mean to express a present or a future; but we put it in the preterit, if we mean to express a

past.

We say: il faut que celui qui parle se mette à portée de celui qui Pécoute, ne t'un speuks should proportion his words to the understanding of him that listens. Il voudra que votre frère soit de la partie, he will want your brother to be of the party. But we ought to say: pour s'être élevé à ce pout de grandeur, il faut que Rome ait en une suite non interroupue de grands hommes, to have risen to that degree of grandeur, Rome must have had an uninterrupted succession of great men.

EXCEPTION. Though the first verb be in the present, yet we may put the second in the imperfect, or pluperfect of the subjunctive, when some conditional expression is to come into the sentence, as: il n'est point d'homme, quelque mérite qu'il ait, qui ne fût très-mortifié, s'il savoit tout ce qu'on pense de lin,

there is no man, whatever merit he may have, that would not feel very much mortified, were he to know what they think of him. Je doute que votre frère eût réussi sans votre assistance, I doubt whether your brother would have succeeded, had it not been for your assistance.

EXERGISE.

He who wishes to teach an art, must know it thoroughly; he must give none but clear, precise and well-digested notions of it; he must instil them, one by one, into the minds of his pupils, and, above all, he must not overburthen their memory with uscless or insignificant rules.

(it must that he who &c. know it)
he must (nor repeated)
que
instil faire entrer

overturthen surcharg 2

They must yield to the force of truth, when they shall have suffered it to appear in its real light. (it must that they) future
suffered permettre
it to appear (that it appear)
real tout
must devoir

I must not forget to observe to you that Sesostris took care to mark on his monuments, the difference between the nations which he had conquered, in hieroglyphic figures, after the manner of the Egyptians.

between de hieroglyphic hieroglyfique after à

RULE II. When the first verb is in the imperfect, either of the preterits, the pluperfect, or either of the conditionals, we put the second in the imperfect of the subjunctive, if we mean to express a present or a future; but we put it in the pluperfect, if we mean to express a past.

We say: je voulois, j'ai voulu, j'eus voulu, je voudrois, or j'eusse voulu que vous finissiez cette affaire: but we ought to say: je ne savois pas, je n'ai pas su, &c. que vous eussiez étudié les mathématiques.

N.B. Great attention ought to be paid to this construction, which is so totally different from the English, that, in order to translate the above examples,

we must make use of several different turns; I wanted, I have or had wanted you to finish this business—I wish you would finish this business—I could

have wished you to finish this business, &c.

Observation. With the preterit indefinite, we may put the second verb in the present, if it express an action which is, or may be done at all times, as: Dieu a entouré les yeux de tuniques fort minces, transparentes au dehors, afin qu'on puisse voir à travers, God has surrounded the eyes with very thin tunics, transparent on the outside, that we may see through; and in the preterit, if we mean to express a past, as: il a fallu qu'il ait sollicité ses juges, he was obliged to solicit his judges.

EXERCISE.

Mr. de Turenne never would buy any thing on credit, of tradesmen, for fear, said he, they should lose a great part of it, if he happened to be killed. All the workmen who were employed for his house, had orders to bring in their bills, before he set out for the campaign, and they were regularly paid.

It vooild be better for a man who truly loves himself to lose his life, than to forfeit his honour by s me base and shameful action.

Lyeurgus, in one of his laws, had forbidden to light those who came out of a feast in the evening, that the fear of not being able to reach their homes should prevent them from getting drunk.

People used the bank of trees, or skins, to write upon, before paper was known.

vould vouloir
buy on credit prendre a
crédit
of chcz
nappened venir

were employed travailler bills mémoire he on

to lose (that he rooula lose)
forfeit , ternir

in par to light éclairer

that afin que reach their houses se rendre chez getting chunk s'en vrer

prople on wied se servir bark écorce skins pean known en weige

Go and ask that old man: for whom are you planting? he will answer you: for the immortal gods, who have ordered, both that I should profit by the labour of those that have preceded me, and that those who should come after me, should profit by mine.

have ordered vouloir both (by et repeated) by de

In general, we put the second verb in the subjunctive, in interrogative and negative sentences, as: quel est l'insensé qui tienne pour sûr qu'il vivra demain? vous ne vous persuadiez pas que les choses pussent tourner si mal.

We also put in the subjunctive the verb which follows a superlative relative, as: le meilleur cortège qu'un prince puisse avoir, c'est le cœur de ses sujets.

The use of the subjunctive is very elegant in elliptical turns, in which we omit the principal proposition, as: qu'il vive! (je souhaite qu'il) may he live! qu'il se soit oublié jusqu'à ce point! (je suis surpris qu'il) that he should so tar forget himself! qui m'aime me suive! (je veux que celui qui) whoever loves me, let him follow me; heureux l'homme qui peut, ne fûte que dans sa vicillesse, jouir de toute la force de sa raison! (quand ce ne seroit que) happy the man that can, were it but in his old age, enjoy the whole strengh of his reason!

EXERCISE.

Is there any body who does not feel that nothing is more degrading in a writer, than the pains he takes to express ordinary or common things in a singular and pompous style.

Do you think that, in forming the republic of bees, God has not had in view to teach kings to command with gentleness, and subjects to obey with love?

is degrading in dégrader in de

becs abeille had in view vouloir You will never be at peace, either be at peace with yourself or with others, unless you seriously apply yourself to refrain your natural impetuosity.

avoir la paix

OBSERVATION. The relative pronouns qui, que, quel, dont and où, govern the subjunctive in the like circumstances.

Who is the writer that does not sometimes experience moments of sterility and languor.

There is not in the heart of man, 2 good impulse that God does not produce.

Choose a retreat where you may be quiet, a post whence you may defend yourself.

The reward the most flattering that a man can gather from his labours, is, the esteem of an enlightened public.

May he live, reign, and long make the happiness of a nation which loves and adores him !

That he should thus degrade himself, is what posterity will find very difficult to believe.

A man just and firm is not shaken, either by the clamours of an inconsiderate mob, nor by the threats of an imperious tyrant: though the whole world were to tumble into ruins, he would be struck by it, but not moved.

impulse mouvement

may pouvoir

(may he repeated before every verb)

find difficult avoir de la believe se persuader is shaken ébranler inconsiderate insensé mob populace imperious fier. though were devoir to tumble into ruins s'écrouler

We cannot close this account of the conditional and subjunctive, without making some further observations upon those two moods, as much on account of some few examples which we have left untransYated, as of those whose translation does not perfectly agree with the models which we have given of the

conjugations.

We have said (page 105) that the English auxiliaries should, would, could, may and might, were not to be considered as essentially and necessarily appertaining to the conditional and subjunctive. Indeed, it seldom happens that the French tenses answer to the English tenses, as marked in the conjugations, at least in subordinate propositions, though they may in the principal ones. For which reason, we earnestly recommend to the learner, a strict adherence to the rules we have already given in the different sections and paragraphs in this chapter. Much depends upon that, and likewise on a clear insight into the operations of the mind. For instance: I wish you would come to-night, cannot be translated by, je souhaite que vous viendriez ce soir, because, " when the verb of the " principal proposition is in the present, the verb of " the subordinate proposition is put in the present of " the subjunctive, if we mean to express a future." Therefore, we must say : je souhaite que vous venicz. (See Rule I.) Or, "if we put the first verb in either of the conditionals, the second is put in the "imperfect of the subjunctive." Therefore, we may also say: je voudrois que vous vinssiez. (See Rule II.) Now, in the first translation, que vous venicz is marked in the model of conjugation by, that you may come, and in the second, que vous vinssiez, by, that you might come, neither of which is in the example quoted.

Again: il n'y a personne qui le croie, cannot be translated by, there is nobody who may believe it, although may is the mark of the subjunctive in the model; but we mean: there is nobody that believes it, or

simply; nobody believes it.

The rules, which we have laid down, are so precise, and the exercises upon them so numerous, that we think it needless to enlarge upon this subject; especially, as a further comparison of the genius of

the French language with that of the English, would not suit an elementary book like the present.

INFINITIVE.

Foreigners are apt to make a mistake in the use of the participle present, because they do not consider, that, as it expresses an incidental proposition, it must evidently relate to the word which it restrains and modifies.

Rule. The participle present always forming a phrase incidental and subordinate to another, must necessarily relate to the subject of the principal phrase,

when it is not preceded by another noun.

In this sentence: je ne puis vous accompagner à la campagne, ayant des affaires qui exigent ici ma présence, I cannot accompany you into the country, having some business that requires my presence here; the participle present, ayant, relates to the subject, je, since the subordinate proposition, formed by ayant, could have no kind of relation to the principal proposition, if it could not be resolved into this, parce que j'ai des affaires qui, &c. But, in this sentence: combien voyons-nous de gens, qui, connoissant le prix du temps, le perdent mal-à-propos! how many people do we see, who, knowing the value of time, waste it improperly! connoissant relates to the substantive gens, because it is the word which it restrains and modifies, and because the relative qui, placed between that substantive regimen, and the participle present, obviates every kind of equivocation.

OBSERVATIONS. 1º. We ought never to use two participles together, without joining them with a conjunction, as: c'est un homme aimant et craignant Dicu,

he is a man loving and fearing God.

2°. We ought never to put the relative en, either before a participle present, or before a gerund. We cannot say: je vous ai remis mon fils entre les mains, en voulant faire quelque chose de bon, because there would be an equivocation; for, the meaning is not: as I wish to do something good, or, as I wish to do well, I have put my son into your hands, but: I have put my

son into your hands, as I wish to make something of him. We should say: woulant en faire, &c.

Likewise, this sentence would be improper: le prince tempère la rigueur du pouvoir, en en partageant les fonctions, on account of the repetition of the word en, taken under two different acceptations, viz. en preposition and en relative. We must, therefore, adopt another turn, such as, c'est en partageant les fonctions du pouvoir, qu'un prince en tempère la rigueur.

OBSERVATION. Some grammarians have maintained, that the participles pu, du and voulu, take neither gender nor number. Yet we say, and with great propriety: il m'a toujours exactement payé toutes les sommes qu'il m'a dues; il veut fortement les choses qu'il a une fois voulues. Custom, however, does not authorize us to say: toutes les choses qu'il a pues: this

last participle is indeclinable.

It is almost needless to observe, that we should avoid making use of participles that might cause an equivocation in the sentence. For instance, this expression: je les ai rangés en ordre, speaking of some papers, presents two meanings, viz. I have set them in order, and I have them, set in order; of course, it is incorrect.

§. VI.

OF PREPOSITIONS.

The function of prepositions is to put into a state of relation, the two terms between which they are placed. In general, the different prepositions which we have distinguished, express that relation by their own signification, as: avec, sur, pendant, dans, &c. But à, de and en, express it, either by their primitive and proper meaning, or by a sense of figure and extent; so that, in this last case, they are merely prepositions serving to unite the two terms; whence it happens that they often express, either the same relations that others do, or opposite relations. For instance, in these two sentences: approximezerous die

A TABL, go the

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS:-The the French language. For, we no longer spem a as that violation; and what still increasesance the inconvenience of not presenting ideas ficamust be names to real things. We agree all the inconveniences which attend the ol marian, the better to express the nature o for a single tense. The Abbé de Condill vays forme in its stead, as : the form je fais, Anwants to have rallying words, and that thinate have, until they can be replaced by others: which the genius of the language admits : lat-REI hus,

:rbs: ither

The Imperioct corresponds to three tsame verb.

The Present anterior corresponds to t, be-3 pas

The Pluperfect corresponds to four to and ur du

The Future anterior corresponds to tl: but OBSERVATION. -- The super-compound throne

The Proterit indefinite super-compour The Preterit anterior super-compount the The Future anterior super-compoundivant With si for supposé que, the Future : that With the same si, the Future anterio, as:

sion: The Pluperfect super-compound corrith in The Conditional past super-compount we The Conditional present corresponds artir. The first Conditional past correspond

Conditional past ssion, n by

OBSERVATION.—When two verbs are j sire, imperative will, doubt feer or ad-

A TABLE of Correspondence of the Moods and Tenses.

Per cross vis. 1 to a version v.—The correspondence of the max vision of the per total displatics of a foregree experience in the study of E. Tranch Lineary. —For we now long years, Brooking, we not volution, and what will receive the obstacling vision and what will receive the obstacling vision and what will receive the obstacling vision and volution of the obstacling vision and volution of the personnel roles will be received to the receiver of the personnel roles will be received to the receiver of the personnel roles will be received to the receiver of the receiver of the personnel roles will be received to the receiver of the

```
The Processing and the Future of solutions of the Processing of th
```

The Planethet smort-compound corresponds to the Conditional past . . . st playousen plate by persons sorti

The Conditional past super-compound, corresponds to the Plupert of Jantons of his against yours of jet a soois past eff interrompt.

The Conditional past super-compound to the Imperfect young partition, since the volume of the control of the super-compound to the Imperfect young partition, since the volume of the super-compound to the Imperfect young partition, since the volume of the super-compound to the Imperfect young partition, since the volume of the super-compound to the Imperfect young partition, since the volume of the

The first Combitional past corresponds to the Pluperfect, or to the second vous series part { si je l'avois voult Conditional past

BELATIONS JOINED BY THE CONJUNCTION 934

Operatories. When two verbs are joined by the conjunction $q_{\theta_{i}}$ we put the second in the adjunctive, when the first presents the idea of $d_{\theta_{i}}$ is the interpretation of the three is no longer and occasion for the adjunctive. It the first victor regress no consonion of the subject is a first victor regress to encount of the wide, or when it is a simple aperation of the mind, unless the verb which expresses that operation be proceeded by a negative, for in this case, it comes again into the first class

RELATIONS OF THE ERPTENT OF THE INDICATIVE TO THE TENSES OF ITS OWN BOOD, AND OF THE CONDITIONAL.

```
Consequence of the following.

There are corresponds to the following.

On distance of the following of the
```

One is a row — The same correspondence tales place when the sentence is normal, except to the present absolute of the inductive, which is replaced to the properties about the subjunctive. One is of the experience parts observables a sould be a grammatical disagreement, the genus of the Truch language requires that we should say the in the passyme many parts or normal him.

```
le coson
                                                                               Li'ar cru
I now five tensor correspond to the Conditional past ...
                                                                                             que vous sorme parti
                                                                                IC CLBS
                                                                               Li'amor, etn
                                                   RELATIONS TO THE SUPPLEMENTARY
The chiral tenses correspond to the present of the Subjunctive . . .
                                                                                il voudra
                                                                                                que vous parties
                                                                               Lil aura voule
                                                                                ic voulors
                                                                               je vontus
These hy senses correspond to the Imperior of the Subjunctive
                                                                               Sj'ai voulu
                                                                                               que vous partissice
                                                                                glavors soula
                                                                               l'eusse voulu
                                                                              | que vous partissiez | que vous fussiez parti
The Conditional present corresponds to two
                                                                              {| Jaurois voulu | que vous fussicz parti.
These two tenses correspond to the Pluperfect of the Subjunctive
```

feu, come near the fire; éloignez-vous du feu, go from the fire, de merely establishes a relation between the two terms, without expressing, in the first, the relation of approximation, and in the second, the relation of distance. In order, therefore, to form a just idea of these three prepositions, it is of importance to consider, only their primitive and proper signification.

En and dans have nearly the same meaning; but these prepositions differ in this, that the former always carries with it an indeterminate idea, as: être en Angleterre; and the latter always presents a determinate one, as: être dans la province de Middlesex.

We no longer say: en l'âge, en l'honneur: the latter expression is still to be met with in Telemachus,

but it is contrary to the present practice.

We must not mistake prepositions for adverbs: prepositions are always followed by a regimen, either expressed or understood: adverbs never. The same word may be both a preposition and an adverb. Avant is a preposition in this phrase: avant le jour, before day-light; but it is an adverb in this: n'allez pas si avant, do not go so forward.

There is the same difference between autour and à l'enteur. We say: tous les grands étoient autour du trône, all the grandees stood round the throne: but we ought to say: le roi étoit sur son trône, et les grands étoient à l'entour, the king was upon his throne

and the grandees stood round.

Avant and auparavant are not used one for the other. Avant is followed by a regimen, as: avant Páques, before Easter; avant ce temps, before that time. Auparavant is followed by no regimen, as: si vous partez, venez me voir auparavant, if you set off, come and see me before. This expression: avant que de, which is so often to be met with in Molière, Mad. de Sévigné, &c. is now obsolete; we say; avant de, as: venez nous voir avant de partir. Avant que partir, is a barbarism.

Prét à and près de, are not the same expression, although frequently mistaken for such, even by

Frenchmen. Prêt is an adjective: je suis prêt à faire ce que vous voudrez, I am ready to do what you please. Près is a preposition: mon ouvrage est près

d'être fini, my work is nearly finished.

Au travers and à travers differ in this: the first is followed by the preposition de, as: il se fit jour au travers des ennemis; the second is not, as: il se fit jour à travers les ennemis, he fought his way through the enemies.

Some good writers, even modern ones, use avant and devant indifferently: but they are wrong. Avant denotes priority of time and order, as: il est arrivé avant moi, l'article se met avant le nom. With regard to this last example, we are not to imitate du Marsais, Condillac and l'Homond. Devant is used for en présence, vis-à-vis, as, il a paru devant le juge; il loge devant l'église.

THE USE OF THE ARTICLE WITH PREPOSI-

Some prepositions require the article before the word which serves as complement: others admit none after them; and others again, sometimes admit,

sometimes reject it.

RULE I. These twenty prepositions, viz. avant, après, chez, dans, depuis, devant, derrière, durant, envers, excepté, hors, hormis, nonobstant, parmis, pendant, selon, suivant, touchant, vers, require the article before the word which serves them as a complement, provided it be not a pronoun.

We say: avant l'aurore, après la promenade, chez

le prince, dans la maison, devant l'église, &c.

RULE II. A noun governed by the preposition en, is not, in general, preceded by the article.

We say: en ville, en campagne, en extase, &c.

OBSERVATION. L'armée est entrée en campagne, means, the army has entered the field; but, Mr. N. est allé à la compagne, means, Mr. N. is gone into the country.

Rule III. These eleven prepositions, viz. à, de, avec, contre, entre, malgré, outre, par, pour, sur,

sans, sometimes admit, sometimes reject, the article, before the noun which serves them as complement.

If we say with the article: jouer sur le velours; St. Paul veut de la subordination entre la femme et le mari; sans les passions, où servit le mérite? we say without the article; étre sur pied; un peu de façons ne gâte rien entre mari et femme; vivre sans passions, c'est vivre sans plaisirs et sans peines.

REPETITION OF THE PREPOSITIONS.

RULE I. We ought to repeat the preposition de

before all the nouns which it governs.

This rule is without any exception, and we ought to say: voyons qui l'emportera de vous, de lui, ou de moi; elle a de l'honnêteté, de la douceur, des grâces et

de l'esprit: but it obtains not in English.

OBSERVATION. We also generally repeat à and en, as well as some other monosyllable prepositions, as: la loi que Dieu a gravée au fonds de mon cœur m'instruit de tout ce que je dois à l'auteur de mon être, au prochain, à moi-même, the law which God has engraved at the bottom of my heart instructs me in every thing I owe to the author of my being, to my neighbour and to myself. En Asie, en Europe, en Afrique et jusqu'en Amérique, on trouve le même préjugé, in Asia, in Europe, in Africa, and even in America, we find the same prejudice.

EXERCISE.

Those who have found the divine art of tracing thought and handing it down to posterity, have been the benefactors of human-kind.

hand down faire passes

There exists upon the earth, and in the air, and in the water, an infinite number of beings, which are a very striking proof of the infinite variety of nature.

The lion's great muscular strength muscular musculaire

is marked outwardly by the prodigious leaps and springs which he makes with ease; by the brisk motion of his tail; by the facility with which he moves the skin of his face, and particularly his forehead, which greatly adds to his physiognomy and to the expression of his fury.

leaps saut
springs bond
brisk brusque
tail queue
skin peau
forehead front

God has given reason to man 10 direct se diriger direct and conduct him.

Rule II. The other prepositions, especially those that have two syllables, are generally repeated before the nouns which have meanings totally different; but they are not, in general, repeated before

nouns that are nearly synonimous.

We say: Ricn n'est moins selon Dieu et selon le monde, nothing is less according to God and according to the world: cette action est contre l'honneur & contre toute espèce de principes, that action is contrary to honour and to every kind of principle. But we ought to say: il perd sa jeunesse dans la mollesse et la volupté, he wastes his youth in effeminacy and voluptuousness: notre loi ne condamne personne sans l'avoir entendu et examiné, our laws condemn nobody, without having heard and examined him.

OF THE GOVERNMENT OF PREPOSITIONS.

Some prepositions govern the nouns without the help of another preposition, as: devant la maison, before the house; hormis son frère, except her brother; sans son épée, without his sword, &c. Others govern the nouns, with the help of the preposition de, as: près de la maison, near the house; à l'insqu de son frère, unknowing to her brother; au dessus du pont, above the bridge, &c. These four, viz. jusque, par rapport, quant and sauf, govern them by means of the preposition à, as: jusqu'au mois prochain, till the next month; quant à moi, as for me, &c. Practice alone can teach these different regimens.

N. B. There is an ellipsis in those sentences in

which two prepositions follow one another, because a preposition never can govern another preposition.

Rule. A noun may be governed by two prepo-

Rule. A noun may be governed by two prepositions, provided they do not require different

regimens.

We may very well say: celui qui écrit, selon les circonstances, pour et contre un parti, est un homme bien
méprisable, he who writes, according to circumstances,
both for and against one party, is a very contemptible
man. But it were wrong to say; celui qui écrit en faveur et contre un parti, &c. because en faveur requires
the preposition de.

There are prepositions which, with their complement, express some circumstances; these have no fixed place in the sentence, being sometimes in the beginning, sometimes at the end, and sometimes in

the middle, as clearness may require.

Rule. Prepositions which, with their regimen, express a circumstance, are generally placed as near as possible to the word to which that circumstance relates.

We ought to say: on voit des personnes qui, avec beaucoup d'esprit, commettent de très-grandes fautes, we see persons who, with a great deal of wit, commit very great faults. J'ai envoyé à la poste les lettres que vous avez écrites, I have sent to the post-office the letters which you have written. Croyez-vous pouvoir ramener par la douceur ces esprits égarés? do you think you can reclaim by gentleness, those mistaken people? If we try to alter the place of those prepositions, we shall find that the sentences will become equivocal.

§. VII.

OF THE ADVERB.

On the negative ne.

Negation is expressed in French by ne, either by itself, or accompanied by pas or point: upon which the Academy has examined four questions:

1°. Where is the place of the negatives?

2°. When are we to make use of pas in preference to point, and vice verså?

3°. When may we omit both?
4°. When ought we to omit both?

As this subject is of very material importance, we shall treat it upon the plan of the Academy, and agreeably to their views: but, before we go any further, we think it necessary to do away a notion, which foreigners, and perhaps many Frenchmen, have imbibed, viz. that two negatives, in our language, make an affirmation. Vaugelas, who is the first that truly knew the genius of the French language, has strongly reprobated this false idea, in his "Remarks." The French Academy have approved this decision, and, we read, in the edition of their Dictionary, in 1798: "In French, two negatives have not, as in Latin, the virtue of affirming, or two negatives do not make an affirmation."

FIRST QUESTION. Where is the place of the

negatives?

Ne is always placed before the verb: but the place of pas and point is variable. When the verb is in the infinitive, they are placed indifferently before or after it; for we say: pour ne point voir, or pour ne voir pas. In the other moods, except the imperative, the tenses are either simple or compound. In the simple tenses, pas or point is placed after the verb: il ne parle pas; ne parle-t-il pas? In the compound tenses, it is placed between the auxiliary and the participle: il n'a pas parlé; n'a-t-il pas parlé? In the imperative, it is placed after the verb: ne badinez pas.

SECOND QUESTION. When are we to make

use of pas in preference to point, and vice versa?

Point is a stronger negative than par: besides, it denotes something permanent: il ne lit point, means, he never reads. Pas denotes something accidental: il ne lit pas, means, he does not read new, or he is not reading. Point de denotes an unreserved negation. To say; il n'a point d'esprit, is to say: he has no wit at all. Pas de allows a liberty of making a reserve. To say: il n'a pas d'esprit, is to say: he has nothing of what can be called wit.

Hence, the Academy conclude that pas comes better, 1° before plus, moins, si, autant, and other comparative words, as: Milton n'est pas moins sublime qu'Homère, Milton is not less sublime than Homer. 2° before nouns of number, as: il n'y a pas dix ans,

it is not ten years ago.

It is elegant to make use of point, 1°. at the end of a sentence, as: on s'amusoit à ses dépens, et il ne s'en appercevoit point, they were amusing themselves at his expence, and he did not perceive it. 2°. In elliptical sentences, as: je croyois avoir affaire à un honneite homme; mais point, I thought I had to deal with an honest man; but no. 3°. In the answers to interrogative sentences, as: Irez-vous ce soir au parc? point, shall you go this evening to the park? no.

The Academy also observe, that when pas or point is introduced into interrogative sentences, it is with meanings somewhat different. We make use of point, when we have some doubt in our minds, as: n'avez-vous point (té là ? have you not been there? But we make use of pas, when we are persuaded. Thus: n'avez-vous pas (té là ? answers to this English expression: but you have been there; have you not ?

THIRD QUESTION. When may we omit both

pas and point?

We may suppress them, 1°. After the words cesser, oser and pouvoir; but this omission is only for the sake of elegance, as: je ne cesse de m'en tecuper, I am incessantly about it. Je n'ose vous en parler, I dare not speak to you about it. Je ne puis y penser sans frémir, I cannot think of it without shuddering. We likewise say, but only in conversation: ne bougez, do not stir. 2°. In these kinds of expressions: y a-t-il un homme dont elle ne médise? is there a man that she does not slander? Avez-vous un ami qui ne soit des miens? have vou a friend that is not mine?

FOURTH QUESTION. When ought we to omit.

both pas and point?
We omit them,

16. When the extent which we mean to give to

the negative is sufficiently declared, either by the words which restrict it, or by words which exclude all restriction, or, lastly, by words which denote the smaller parts of a whole, and which are without article.

In the first instance, we say: je ne sors guère, I go out but seldom: je ne sortirai de trois jours, I shall.

not go out for these three days.

In the second instance; we say: je n'y vais jamais,. I never go thither: je n'y pense plus, I think no more of it: nul ne sait s'il est digne d'amour ou de haine, nobody knows whether he be deserving of love or hatred: n'employez aucun de ces stratagémes, use none of these stratagems: il ne plaît à personne, he pleases nobody: rien n'est plus charmant, nothing is more charming: je n'y pense nullement, I do not think of it at all.

In the third instance, we say: il n'y voit goutte, he cannot see at all: je n'en ai cueilli brin, I did not gather a bit: il ne dit mot, he speaks not a word. But, if to mot we join an adjective of number, we must add pas, as: il ne dit pas un mot qui n'intéresse, he speaks not a word but what is interesting: dans ce discours, il n'y a pas trois mots à reprendre, in that speech, there are not three words that are reprehensible.

OBSERVATION. If, after the sentences we have just mentioned, either the conjunction que, or a relative pronoun should introduce a negative sentence, then we omit pas and point, as: je ne fais jamais d'excès que je n'en sois incommodé, I never make any excess, without being ill after it: we likewise make use of pas with the preposition de, as: il ne fait pas de démarche inutile, he does not take any useless step.

2°. When two negatives are joined by ni, as: je ne l'aime ni ne l'estime, I neither love nor esteem hin; and when the conjunction ni is repeated, either in the subject, as: ni l'or ni la grandeur ne nous rendent heureux, neither gold nor greatness can make us happy; or in the attribute, as: il n'est ni prudent ni sage, he is neither prudent nor wise; or in the regimen, as:

il.n'a ni dettes ni procès, he has neither debts nor law-suits.

OBSERVATION. We may preserve pas, when ni is not repeated, and when it is separated from the first negative by a certain number of words, as: je n'aime pas ce vain étalage d'érudition, prodiguée sans choix et sans goût, ni ce luxe de mots qui ne disent rien, I do not like that vain display of erudition, lavished without choice and without taste, nor that pomp of

words which have no meaning.

3°. With ne que, used instead of seulement; with the verb which follows que, used instead of pourquoi; with à moins que, or si, used instead of it: une jeunesse qui se livre à ses passions, ne transmet à la viellesse qu'un corps usé, youth which abandons itself to its passions, transmits to old age nothing but a worn-out body: que n'êtes vous aussi posé que votre frère? why are you not as sedate as your brother? je ne sortiraipas, à moins que vous ne veniez me prendre, I shall not go out, unless you come to fetch me: je n'irai pas chez lui, s'il ne m'y engage, I shall not go to his house, if he do not invite me (to it).

4°. When, before the conjunction que, the word rien is understood, as: il ne fait que rire, he does nothing but laugh: or when that conjunction may be changed into si non, or si ce n'est que, as: il ne tient qu'à vous de réussir, it only depends on you to succeed; that is, the success wholly depends upon you: trop de maîtres à la fois ne servent qu'à embrouiller l'esprit, so many masters at once only serve to per-

plex the mind.

50. With a verb in the preterit, preceded by the conjunction depuis que, or by the verb il y a, denoting a certain duration of time, as: comment vous êtes-vous porté depuis que je ne vous ai vu, how have you been since I have seen you: il y a trois mois que je ne vous ai vu, I have not seen you for these three months.

OBSERVATION. But we do not omit them, when the verb is in the present, as: comment vit-il depuis que nous ne le voyons point? how does he live since we

do not see him? il y a six mois que nous ne le voyons

point, we have not seen him these six months.

6°. In phrases where the conjunction que is preceded by the comparative adverbs plus, moins, mieux, &c. or some other equivalent, as: on méprise ceux qui parlent autrement qu'ils ne pensent, we despise those who speak differently from what they think: il écrit mieux qu'il ne parle, he writes better than he speaks: c'est pire qu'on ne le disoit, it is worse than was said: c'est autre chose que je ne croyois, it is different from what I thought: peu s'en faut qu'on ne m'ait trompé, I have been very near being deceived.

7°. In sentences united by the conjunction que to the verbs douter, désespérer, nier and disconvenir, forming a negative member of a sentence, as: je ne doute pas qu'il ne vienne, I doubt not that he will come: ne désespérez pas que ce moyen ne vous réussisse, do not despair of the success of these means: je ne nie pas, or je ne disconviens pas que cela ne soit, I do not

deny, or I do not dispute that it is so.

OBSERVATION. The Academy say, that, after the last two verbs, ne may be omitted, as: je ne nie

pas, or je ne disconviens pas que cela soit.

8. With the verb united by the conjunction que to the verbs empécher and prendre garde, meaning to have a care, as: j'empécherai bien que vous ne soyez du nombre, I shall prevent your being of the number:: prenez garde qu'on ne vous séduise, have a care that

they do not seduce you.

OBSERVATION. The Academy make the remark that, in the above acceptation, prendre garde is followed by a subjunctive; but when it means to reflect, we make use of the indicative, and of pas or point, as: prenez garde que vous ne m'entendez pas, mind, reflect, consider that you do not understand what I mean.

9°. With the verb united with the conjunction que to the verb craindre, and those of the same meaning, when we do not wish the thing expressed by the second verb, as: il craint que son frère ne l'abandonne, he is afraid that his brother should forsake him: jø

Evains que mon ami ne meure, I fear my friend will die.
But pas is not omitted, when we wish the thing expressed by the second verb, as: je crains que mon père n'arrive pas, I am afraid my father will not come.

OBSERVATION. It seems that, with the verbs empecher and prendre garde, as well as with craindre, we should not make use of ne, when we do not wish the thing expressed by the second verb, since that word is not necessary to make the meaning under-stood. "But no", said formerly the Academy, "it is certain that with these verbs we ought to make use of the negative ne; it is a form which we are no longer at liberty to alter:" which made the Abbé d'Olivet say: "I confess that this negative particle seems to be redundant in our language; but we have had it from time immemorial; why should we not respect so ancient a custom?" Du Marsais also says: "that the mind turned towards the negative, naturally introduces it into the discourse". But the Academy have since examined this question with a greater degree of attention, and have now accounted for the introduc-tion of ne in these kinds of expressions. They say: "This word is not a negative; but it is the Latin ne or quin, which has passed into our language". Thus, then, the Abbé d'Olivet was very right when he judged: this line of Racine to be incorrect through custom:

Craignez-vous que mes yeux versent trop peu de larmes ?

In these cases ne is a mere expletive, but we are not.

at liberty to suppress it.

10°. With the verb which follows de peur que, de. crainte que, in the same case as with craindre. Thus, when we say : de crainte qu'il ne perde son procès, we wish that he may win it; and de crainte qu'il ne soit

pas puri, we wish that he may be punished.

110. After savoir, whenever it has the meaning of pouvoir, as: je ne saurois en venir à bout, 1 cannot bring it about. When it means etre incertain, it is best to omit them, as: je ne sais où le prendre, I do not know where to find him; il ne sait ce qu'il dit, he does not know what he says.

OBSERVATIONS. But we ought to make use of pas or point, when savoir is taken in its true meaning, as: je ne sais pas le François, I do not know French.

12°. We also say: ne vous déplaise, ne vous en déplaise, by your leave, under favour: and sometimes in familiar conversation, n'étoit, for si ce n'étoit, as: cet ouvrage seroit fort bon, n'étoit pour la négligence du style, that work would be very good, were it not for the want of correctness in the style.

EXERCISE.

The heavens, the earth, man himself, every thing has had a beginning and shall have an end: God alone, immutable by his nature, never began and never will end.

The wicked little think that, while they are forming their plots, they are working their own destruction.

A heart which has once degraded itself, does not, for a long time, open to the sweet impressions of virtue.

Nobody is ignorant that there can be no morals in a state without religion, because morality must have a sufficient basis, and that basis can be no other than religion.

There is no phenomenon whose cause is less known.

Do we owe nothing to ourselves?

What! can then virtue be but an compty name!

Why do you not sometimes descending your own heart, in order to discover the secret motives of your actions?

We ought not to examine certain 70

little guêre think se douter are forming ourdin

degraded itself se dégrader not ne plus

morals mœurs

other

voe can *
be être cond-L

on

questions, unless we have a sure guide.

Cabals, animosities and jealousies do not prevent the triumph of truth.

A great general takes care that the enemy should not penetrate his designs.

The famous Law, retired at Venice, always feared that his enemies might pursue him thither, or at least succeed in poisoning him there.

I do not dispute that the ancient philosophers, particularly Pythagoras, Plato and Cicero, have had great notions about the nature of God and of the soul.

He has behaved himself on that occasion better than was expected.

I know not what author has said that the wisest of men was the least fool among them. the triumph (that truth triumphed)

dispute disconvenir

notions lumières and (that) of the soul

behaved se conduire

fool fou

Plus and davantage are not used one for the other. Plus is followed by the preposition de, or the conjunction que, as: il a plus de brillant que de solide, he has more brilliancy than solidity: il se fie-plus à ses lumières qu'à celles des autres, he relies more upon his own knowledge than upon that of others. Davantage is used alone and at the end of sentences, as: la science est estimable, mais la vertu l'est davantage, learning is estimable, but virtue is still more so. It is incorrect to make use of davantage for le plus: we ought to say: de toutes les fleurs d'un parterre, la rose est celle qui me plait le plus, of all the flowers of a parterre, the rose is that which pleases me most.

Si, aussi, tant and autant, are always followed by the conjunction que. Si and aussi are joined to adjectives and participles; tant and autant to substantives

and verbs. L'Angleterre n'est pas si grande que la France, England is not so large as France: il est aussi estimé qu'aimé, he is as much esteemed as he is loved, elle a autant de beauté que de vertu, she has as much

beauty as she has virtue.

OBSERVATION. We may, nevertheless, substitute autant for aussi, when preceded by one of the adjectives, and followed by que and the other adjective, as: il est modeste autant que sage. This construction is not altogether agreeable to the genius of the English language; for: he is modest as much as wise, is inelegant; and to say: he is modest as much as he is wise, carries with it an amphibology, as it may be understood thus: he (pointing to one man) is modest, as much as he (pointing to another man) is wise.

Aussi and autant are used in affirmative sentences; si and tant in negative or interrogative ones. The last two, are however, the only ones that can be used in affirmative sentences, when they are put for tellement, as: il est devenu si gros, qu'il a de la peine à marcher, he is become so jolly that he can hardly walk; il a tant couru qu'il en est hors d'haleine, he has been running

so fast that he is out of breath.

We must not confound à la campagne and en campagne; the latter never applies but to the movement of the troops, as: l'armée est en campagne, the army has taken the field; but we ought to say: j'ai passé l'été à la campagne, I have spent the summer in the country.

Jamais takes sometimes the preposition à, as: soyez à jamais heureux, be for ever happy; and toujours takes the preposition pour, as: c'est pour toujours,

it is for ever.

THE PLACE OF THE ADVERBS.

RULE I. In the simple tenses, the adverb is generally placed after the verb; and, in the compound tenses, between the auxiliary and the participle.

EXAM-

EXAMPLES.

L'homme le plus éclairé est ordinairement celui qui pense le plus modestement de lui-même,

Avez-vous jamais vu un pédant plus absurde & plus vain ? The man who is most learned is generally he who thinks most modestly of humself.

Have you ever seen a pedant more absurd and more vain?

We always place after the verb the compound adverbs, and those to which custom has preserved the regimen of the adjectives from which they are derived, as: c'est à la mode, that is fashionable; il a agi conséquemment, he has acted consistently.

We likewise place after the verb those adverbs which denote time in an indeterminate manner, as: it ent fallu se lever plus matin, you should have got up earlier; on a vu cela autrefois, that has been seen

formerly.

EXCEPTIONS. 1º. We place either before or after the yerb the adverbs of order and rank, and those which denote time in a determinate manner. Thus, we may say: nous devons faire premièrement notre devoir, secondement chercher les plaisirs permis, we ought, first, to do our duty, secondly enjoy lawful pleasures: aujourd'hui, il fait beau, il pleuvra peut-étre demain, to day, it is fine, it will rain perhaps to-morrow.

2°. We always place before the verb the five adverbs which serve for interrogation, as: comment vous portez-vous? how do you do? où allez-vous? whither are you going?

RULE II. We must always place the adverb be-

fore the adjective which it modifies.

EXAMPLE.

C'est une femme fort belle, très-sensible, & infiniment sage, she is a woman very beautiful, very sensible and infinitely virtuous.

RULE III. The adverbs of quantity and the three adverbs of time, souvent, tenjours and jamais are placed before the other adverbs.

G g

EXAMPLES.

Si poliment, so politely; très-heureusement, very happily; le plus adroitement, the most skilfully; ils ne seront jamais étroitement unis, they aever will be intimately united; ils sont toujours ensemble, they are always together; c'est souvent à l'improviste qu'il arrive, he often comes unexpectedly.

The adverb souvent may, however, be preceded by an adverb of quantity, as, si souvent, assez souvent.

OBSERVATION. The adverbs of quantity often meet together in the same sentence. This is the order which custom has established. Si peu, trop peu, bien peu, très-peu, beaucoup trop, bien plus, bien davantage, beaucoup moins, tant mieux, tant pis, &c. We also say: bien assez, or assez bien, moins bien, fort bien, &c.

CHAP. XI.

OF GRAMMATICAL CONSTRUCTION.

Grammatical construction, in the French language, is the order which the genius of that language has assigned, in discourse, to the nine sorts of words which we have distinguished. Some persons mistake it for syntax; but there is this difference, viz. that syntax consists in the rules which we are to observe, in order to express the relations of words one to another, whereas grammatical construction consists in the various arrangements which we may allow ourselves to make, while observing the rules of syntax. Now, this construction is irrevocably fixed, not only as the phrases may be interrogative, imperative or expositive, but also as each of these kinds may be affirmative or negative.

In interrogative sentences with affirmation, the

subject is either a noun or a pronoun.

If the subject be a noun, this is the order of the words: the noun, the verb, the corresponding personal pronoun, the adverb, if any, and the regimen in the simple tenses, or in the compound tenses, the pronoun and the adverb between the auxiliary and the participle, as: les lumières sont-elles un bien pour les juples? Ont-elles jamais contribué à leur bonheur?

are sciences a benefit to nations? Have they ever con-

tributed to their happiness?

If the subject be a pronoun, the verb begins the series, and the other words follow it in the same order which we have pointed out, as: vous plairez-vous toujours à médire? will you always take a pleasure in slandering? aurez-vous bientôt fini? shall you have soon done?

N. B. When the verb is a reflected one, the pronoun regimen begins the series, as may be seen in the first instance, because this pronoun always preserves its place before the verb, except in imperative sen-

tences, with affirmation.

In interrogative sentences, with negation, it is the same order; but we place ne before the verb, and pas or point, after the verb, with the characteristic of the interrogation in the simple tenses, and between the auxiliary and the participle in the compound tenses, as: votre frère ne viendra-t-il pas demain? will not your brother come to-morrow? n'aurez vous pas

bientôt fini? shall you not have done soon?

OBSERVATION. There are in French several other ways of making an interrogation. 1°. With an absolute pronoun, as: qui vous a dit cela? or, qui est-ce qui vous a dit cela? who told you that? 2°. With the demonstrative pronoun ce, as: cst-ce vous? is it you? cst-ce qu'il pleut? does it rain? 3°. With an adverb of interrogation, as: pourquoi ne vient-il pas? why does he not come? comment vous trouvez-vous? how do you find yourself? Hence, we see that the absolute pronouns and the interrogative adverbs are, always at the head of the sentence; but the demonstrative pronoun always comes after the verb.

Seniences are imperative, when, in speaking, we

command, exhort, entreat or forbid.

In imporative sentences, with affirmation, the verb is always the first, in the first two persons; but in the third, it never comes but after the conjunction que, and the noun or pronoun, as: allons là, let us go thither, venez ici, come hither; qu'ils y aillent, let them go thither; que Pierre aille à Londres, let Peter go to

G g 2

No

London. In those with negation, ne and pas are placed as in interrogative sentences.

As to the place of the pronouns, see page 251.

Sentences are expositive, when we speak without either interrogating or commanding. This is the order of the words in those which are affirmative: the subject, the verb, the adverb, the participle, the regimen, as : un don prince mérite l'amour de ses sujets & l'estime de tous les peuples, a good prince deserves the love of his subjects, and the esteem of all nations; César cut inutilement passé le Rubicon, s'il y cut cu de son temps des Fabius, Cesar would have crossed the Rubicon to no purpose, had there been Fabius's in his time. The negative sentences differ from this construction, only as are is always placed before the verb, and pas or point, either after the verb, or between the auxiliary and the participle, as : un homme riche ne fait pas toujours le bien qu'il pourroit, a rich man does not always do all the good he might; Cicéron n'eût pas peut-être été un si grand orateur, si le désir de s'élever aux premières dignités n'eût enflammé son ame, Cicero would not perhaps have been so great an orator, had not the desire of raising himself to the first dignities inflamed his soul.

For the place of the pronouns regimen, see page 250. Sentences are, either simple or compound. They are simple, when they contain only one subject and or e attribute, as : vous lisez, you read ; vous êtes jeune, you are young. They are compound, when they compare several subjects to one attribute, or several attributes to one subject, or several attributes to several subjects, or several subjects to several attributes. This sentence: Pierre et Paul sont heureux, is compound by several subjects; this: cette femme est jolie, spirituelle & sensible, is compound by several attributes; and this other: Pierie & Paul sont spirituels & savans, is compound at once by several subjects and several attributes. The simple sentence contains but one judgment; the compound sentence contains several.

A sentence may be compound in various other ways; by the subject, by the verb, or by the attribute.

By the subject, when this subject is restricted by an incidental proposition, as : Dieu qui est bon.

By the verb, when this verb is modified by some circumstance of time, order, &c. as : Dieu qui est bon

n'abandonne jamais.

By the attribute, when this attribute is modified by a regimen which is itself restricted, as: Dieu qui est bon n'abandonne jamais les hommes qui mettent sincère-

ment leur confiance en lui.

These simple or compound sentences may be joined to others by a conjunction, as: quand on aime l'étude, le temps passe, sans qu'on s'en apperçoive, when one loves study, time flies without one perceiving it. The two partial phrases form but one.

RULE. When a proposition is composed of two partial phrases, joined by a preposition, harmony and perspicuity generally require the shortest to go first.

EXAMPLES.

Quand les passions nous quittent, nous nous flattons en vain que c'est nous qui les quittons,

On n'est frint à flaindre, He is not to be pitied, who, quand, au défaut de biens réels on trauve le moven de s'occuper de chimères,

When passions leave us, we. in vain flatter ourselves that it is we that leave them.

for want of real riches, finds means to amuse himself with chimeras.

Periods result from the union of several partial phrases, the whole of which makes a complete sense. Periods, to be clear, require the shortest phrases to be placed first. The following example of this is taken from Fléchier.

N'attendez pas, Messieurs,

1. Que j'euvre une scène tragique;

2. Que je représente ce grand homme étendu sur ses prepres trophics;

3. Que je dicouvre ce corps pale & sanglant, auprès

duquel fume encore la foudre qui l'a frappé;

4. Que je fasse crier son sang comme celui d' Abel, & que j'expose à vos yeux les images de la religion & de la patrie éplurée.

Gg3

This superb period is composed of four members, which go on gradually increasing. It is a rule not to give more than four members to a period, and to avoid multiplying incidental propositions. Obscurity in the style is generally owing to those propositions, which divert the attention from the principal proposi-

tions and make us lose sight of them.

The construction which we have mentioned is called direct or regular, because the words are placed in those sentences according to the order which we have pointed out. But this order may be altered in certain cases, and then, we say that the construction is indirect or irregular. Now, it may be irregular, by inversion, by ellipsis, by pleonasm, or by syllepsis; these are what we call the four figures of words.

OF INVERSION.

Inversion is the transposition of a word into a place, different from that which we have assigned it. We ought never to make use of it but when it throws more clearness, energy or harmony upon the language; for, it is bad construction, whenever the relation of the correlatives is not easily perceived.

There are two kinds of inversion: the one, which, by its boldness, seems to be confined to poetry; the other, which is of ordinary use even in prose. We

speak here of the latter kind only.

The following are those which are authorized by

custom.

1°. We may very well place after the verb the subject by which it is governed, as: Tout ce que lui promet l'amitié des Romains, all that the friendship of

the Romans promises him.

OBSERVATION. This inversion is a rule of the art of speaking and writing, whenever the subject is modified by an incidental proposition, long enough to make us lose sight of the relation of the verb governed to the subject governing.

2°. We may also very properly place before the governing, the noun governed by the prepositions de and à, as: d'une voix entrecoupée de sanglots, ils

s'écrièrent, in a voice interrupted by sobs, they exclaimed; à tant d'injures qu'a-t-elle répondu? to so much

abuse, what answer did she give?

We also very elegantly place before the verb the prepositions après, dans, par, sous, contre, &c. with what is to follow them, as well as the conjunctions si, quand, parce que, puisque, quoique, lorsque, &c. as: par la loi du corps, je tiens à ce monde qui passe, by the law of the body, I am linked with this transient world; puisqu'il le veut, qu'il le fasse, since he will have it so, let him do it.

OF THE ELLIPSIS.

Ellipsis is the omission of a word, or even several words which are necessary to make the construction full and complete. That the ellipsis may be good, the mind must be able easily to supply the value of the words which we have thought proper to omit, as: j'accepterois les offres de Darius, si j'étois Alexandre; & moi aussi, si j'étois Parménion, I would accept the offers of Darius, if I were Alexander; and so would I, if I were Parmenion. Here the mind easily supplies the words je les accepterois, in the second member.

The ellipsis is very common in the answers to interrogative sentences, as: quand viendrez-vove? demain, when will you come? to-morrow, that is:

je viendrai demain.

In order to know whether an ellipsis is good, the words that are understood must be supplied. It is exact, whenever the construction full and complete makes up the sense denoted by the words that are joined and by the circumstances: otherwise, it is not exact.

OF THE PLEONASM.

Pleonasm, in general, is a superabundance in the expression. To be good, it must be authorized by custom, and we may, with truth, affirm, that custom authorizes only those which either give a greater degree of energy to discourse, or express in a clearer manner the inward sentiment with which we are

affected. Et que m'a fait à moi cette Troie où je cours? Je me meurs. S'il ne veut pas vous le dire, je vous le dirai, moi. Je l'ai vu de mes propres yeux. Je l'ai entendu de mes propres oreilles. A moi, in the first sentence; me, in the second; moi, in the third; de mes propres yeux, in the fourth, and de mes propres oreilles, in the fifth, are there merely for the sake of energy, or to manifest an inward sentiment. But these manners of speaking are sanctioned by custom.

N. B. The above sentences will not bear the English translation with a pleonasm, except the last

two.

OBSERVATION. We must not mistake for pleonasms those words which are merely expletive, as: c'est une affaire où il y va du salut de l'état, it is an affair in which the safety of the state is concerned; which is better than c'est une affaire où il va, &c. by omitting y which is useless on account of où: but those are expressions from which we are not allowed to take away any thing. ACADEMY.

OF THE SYLLEPSIS.

The Syllepsis takes place, whenever we make a word figure more with the idea we have of it, than with the

word to which it relates.

There is a syllepsis in these expressions: il est onze hours; l'an mil sept-cens quatre-vingt-dix-neuf. When we make use of it, the mind merely intent upon a precise meaning, pays no attention to either the

number or the gender of houre and an.

There is likewise a syllepsis in these sentences: je crains qu'il ne vienne; j'empécherai qu'il ne vous nuisc; j'ai peur qu'il ne m'oublie, &c. Full of a wish that the event may not take place, we are willing to do all we can, that nothing should put an obstacle to that wish. This is the cause of the introduction of the negative; and, although it is useless to complete the sense, yet we must preserve it, as we have already mentioned.

There is again a syllepsis, and a very elegant one, in

sentences like the following ones:

Racine has said:

Entre le peuple et vous, vous prendrez Dieu pour juge ; Vous souvenant, mon fils, que caché sous ce lin, Comme eux vous fûtes pauvre, et comme eux orphelin.

The poet forgets that he has been using the word peuple; nothing remains in his mind but des pauvres and des orphelins, and it is with that idea of which he is full that he makes the pronoun eux agree. For the same reason, Bossuet and Mezengui have said, the former: quand le peuple Hébreu entra dans la terre promise, tout y célébroit leurs ancêtres; and the latter: Moise eut recours au Seigneur, & lui dit: que ferai-je à ce peuple? bientôt ils me lapideront. Leurs and ils are for les Hébreux.

CHAP. XII.

of GRAMMATICAL DISAGREEMENTS, AMPHI-BOLOGIES, AND, OCCASIONALLY, OF GAL-LICISMS.

WE have chiefly to take notice of two vicious constructions, which are contrary to the principles which we have established in the preceding chapters, viz. grammatical disagreements and amphibologies.

I.

In general, there is disagreement in discourse, when the words which compose the various members of a sentence, or a period, do not agree one with another, either because they are construed against analogy, or because they bring together dissimilar ideas, between which the mind perceives opposition, or can see no manner of affinity.

The following examples will serve to illustrate this

matter.

This sentence: notre réputation ne dépend pas des louanges qu'on nous donne, mais des actions louables que nous faisons, is not correct, because the first member being negative, and the second affirmative, cannot come under the government of the same verb. We ought to say; notre réputation dépend, non des louanges qu'on nous donne, mais des actions, &c. our reputation depends, not upon the praises which are bestowed on us, but upon the praise-worthy actions which we are doing.

This other: sa réponse est dictée, ainsi que son silence, is also incorrect, because the participle dictée, being used in the feminine in the first member, cannot be understood in the masculine in the second.

But the most common disagreements are those which

arise from the wrong use of the tenses.

We find one of this kind in this sentence: il regarde votre malheur comme une punition du peu de complaisance que vous avez eue pour lui, dans le temps qu'il vous pria, &c. because the two preterits definite and indefinite cannot well come in together: it should be: que vous cûtes pour lui dans le temps qu'il vous pria.

There is another in this sentence: on en ressentis autant de joie que d'une victoire complète dans un autre temps, because the verb cannot be understood after the que which serves for the comparison, when that verb is to be in a different tense; it should be: on en ressentit autant de joie qu'on en auroit ressenti, &c.

This line of Racine,

Le flot qui l'apporta recule épouvantée,

is also incorrect, because the form of the present cannot come in with that of the preterit definite: it should have been : qui l'a apporté.

II.

There is amphibology in discourse, when a sentence is so construed as to be susceptible of two different interpretations: it ought to be carefully avoided. we speak, only to be understood, clearness is the first and most essential quality of language; we should always recollect that what is not clearly expressed is not French.

Amphibologies are occasioned, 1°. by the use of the moods of tenses. 2°. By the personal pronouns il, le, la, &c. 3°. By the possessive pronouns son, sa, ses, &c. 4°. By nouns not being in the places they ought to occupy.

EXAMPLE

Of an amphibology of the first kind.

Qu'ai-je fait, *pour venir* accabler en ces lieux Un héros, sur qui seul j'ai pu tourner les yeux?

Pour venir makes amphibology, because we do not know whether it relates to the person who speaks, or to the person spoken to: it should have been: pour que vous veniez.

EXAMPLE

Of an amphibology of the second kind.

César voulut premièrement surpasser Pompée; les grandes richesses de Crassus lui firent croire qu'il poursoit pastager la gloire de ces deux grands hommes.

This sentence is vicious in its construction, because the pronouns il and lui seem to relate to César, although the sense obliges us to refer them to Crassus.

EXAMPLE

Of an amphibology of the third kind. Valère alla chez Léandre; il y trouvason fils.

The pronoun son is equivocal, because we do not know to which it relates, to Valère or to Léandre.

EXAMPLE

Of an amphibology of the fourth kind. Tai envoyé les lettres que j'ai écrites à la poste.

Ala poste, thus placed, is equivocal, because we do not know whether it is meant that the letters have been written at the post-office, or sent to the post-office.

OF GALLICISMS.

We have distinguished in our "Grammaire Raisonnée," four sorts of gallicisms: we shall only men-

tion here those of construction.

The gallicisms of construction are, in general, irregularities and deviations from the customary rules of syntax: there are some, however, which are mere ellipses, and others which can only be attributed to the unaccountable whims of custom.

GENERAL PRINCIPLE. Every gallicism of construction which obscures the meaning of the sentence, ought to be proscribed. We are only to preserve those which, by the irregularity of the construction, do not lessen its perspicuity, and which are, at the

same time, sanctioned by long practice.

According to this principle, we now reject this elliptic gallicism: et qu'ainsi ne soit, meaning ce que je vous dis est si vrai que, because it obscured the sentence, although it was sanctioned by custom. For instance: j'étois dans ce jardin, et qu'ainsi ne soit, voilà une fleur que j'y ai cacillie, that is: et pour preuve de cela, voilà une fleur, &c. which it is not easy to apprehend: for this reason, Molière and La Fontaine are, at least we think so, the last great writers that have used this expression.

One of the most common gallicisms is, that in which we introduce the impersonal verb il y a, used for ilest, il existe. These expressions: il y avoit une fois un roi, il y a cent à parier contre un, are gallicisms. There are two in the following one: il n'y a pas jusqu'aux enfans qui ne s'en mêlent, even children will

meddle with it (will do it).

These sentences: il n'est rien moins que généreux, he is far from being generous: vous avez beau dire, you may say what you please, but, &c.: à ce qu'il me semble, by what I can see, as the matter appears to me, &c.: nous voilà à nous lamenter, we began to lament, here we are lamenting, crying, &c: qu'est ce que de nous! what wretched beings we are! &c.

&c. are also gallicisms.

The use which we make of the preposition en, in many sentences, is still another source of gallicisms; some of this kind will be found in the following expressions: à qui en avez-vous? whom are you angry at? où en veut-il venir? what does he aim at? what would he be at? what does he mean? il lui en veut, he owes him a spite, a grudge, &c. The preposition en changes also, sometimes, the signification of verbs, and then gives rise to gallicisms.

The conjunction que produces as great a quantity of gallicisms, as: c'est une terrible passion que le jeu, gaming is a terrible passion: c'est donc en vain que je travaille, it is in vain then that I work: ce n'est pas trop que cela, that is not too much, it is not too much, so: il n'est que d'avoir du courage, there is nothing like having some courage.

Many others will be found in the use which we make of the prepositions à, de, dans, après, &c. but

we have said enough on this subject.

Gallicisms are of very great use in the simple style: therefore, La Fontaine and Mad. de Sévigné abound in them. The middling style has not so many, and we find but few in the solemn oratorical style, and these even of a peculiar nature. We shall here insert, two examples of gallicisms in the sublime, both taken from the tragedy of Iphigenia, by Racine:

Avez-vous pu penser qu'au sang d'Agamemnon Achille préférât une fille sans nom? Qui de tout son destin ce qu'elle a pu comprendre, C'est qu'elle sort d'un sang, &c.

And

Te ne sais qui m'arrête et retient mon courroux, Que par un prompt avis de tout ce qui se passe Je ne coure des dieux divulguer la menace.

In the first sentence, qui is subject, though without a verb relating to it; and in the second, je ne sais que m'arrête que je ne coure, is contrary to the rules of common contraction. "But," says Vaugelas, "those extraordinary phrases, fur from being vicious, possess so much the more gracefulness, as they are more peculiar to each language."

CHAP. XIII.

A TREATISE ON ORTHOGRAPHY.

ORTHOGRAPHY is the manner of writing all the words of a language, according to the custom received and adopted by the best writers. The orthography of the French language is not easy, because the same H h

sound is not always represented by the same combination of letters, and because it sometimes happens, that the same combination presents different sounds. Several famous modern writers, struck with this inconsistency, have endeavoured to remedy it; they have proposed plans of reform, which we shall mention, whenever the knowledge of them may prove useful to foreigners, and guard them against innovations which have not yet received the sanction of usage. No writer, however celebrated, however enlightened he may be, has a right to make any alterations in this respect, and nobody should adopt those which he has taken upon himself to make, when the French Academy, the sole competent judge of this matter, has constantly and obstinately rejected them.

This little treatise, therefore, shall have for its basis, the decisions of the Academy, because, in an elementary work, composed for the instruction of foreigners, it would be absurd and ridiculous to give the practice of one writer as the general practice. But, before we enter the subject, we shall speak of the signs of orthography, which are six, viz: the accents, the apostrophe, the hyphen, called tiret or trait d'union, the diaræsis, called trêma, the eédille, and the paren-

thesis.

OF ACCENTS.

We must not confound the accents of which we are going to speak, with those mentioned in the first part of this grammar (Chap. III. Art. I.), they have nothing in common but the name. These are merely printed accents, which are used to mark the different sorts of e's and long vowels.

The acute accent () is placed over the e acute,

which we call fermé, as: braté, bontés.

The grave accent () is placed over the e open, as:

il mène, il pèse, succès, decès.

OBSERVATION. When the e is open short, some authors use no accent, and others use the acute: but the Academy, the sole tribonal that we are to acknowledge, write fere, mère, règle, modèle.

This accent is also placed over à preposition: rendez à Dieu et à César; over là adverb: il est la; over holà; over çà, adverb: cà et là, and their compounds; over où, adverb: où est-ilé over dès, preposition: dès le point du jour; over près, après, auprès, prepositions: près du feu, &c. over très, adverb. But not over les, article, nor over the pronouns la, des, mes, tes, ses, ces, &c.

The circumflex accent (^) is placed over the e very open, in syllables where they omit the s, as: tempéte, fite, &c. This sound, being very long, sensibly expresses the successive but rapid elevation and depression

of the tone of the voice.

Observation. The above words were formerly spelt with an s; by degrees, this s was omitted in the pronunciation; and, in order to mark this omission, they lengthened the syllable. This lengthening we have marked with the circumflex accent, and such is the origin of it. For this reason, we place it over those syllables in which the omission of a letter has been supplied by the length of the sound, as in bailler, hote, give, flate, &c. which were formerly spelt baailer, hoste, giste, flate, &c.

N. B. The circumflex accent is also placed over dd, participle of the verb devoir, to distinguish it from du,

preposition-article.

OF THE APOSTROPHE.

The apostrophe is the omission of a letter at the end of a word, for the facility of pronunciation. The sign of this omission is a comma, which is placed at the top of the consonant, and in the place which the yowel would occupy, if there were no apostrophe, as:

l'ame, jusqu'où, s'il.

In French, the e mute is always omitted in the pronunciation before a vowel; but in writing, the ellision is not marked with the apostrophe, except in the monosyllables je, me, te, se, que, de, ne, ce, and in quelque, entre, jusque, queique, as: j'aime, qu'a-t-il dit? c'est la verité: but quelque drops the e, only before

1-1 h 2

un and autre, as: quelqu'un, quelqu'autre: we write without ellision, quelque éclairé. Entre drops the e before eux, elles, autres, as: entr'eux, entr'elles, entr'autres: and jusque drops it before à, au, aux, ici, as: jusqu'à Londres, jusqu'au ciel, jusqu'aux nues, jusqu'ici: we also write: quel qu'il soit, quoiqu'il fasse, &c.

The a is omitted, only in la, article or pronoun, as: Pame, je Pentends, for la ame, je la entends: we, indeed, say la onzième page, but it is because this noun of number is often written in figures, la XI. lettre.

We also say: le oui et le non.

The i is dropped, only in the conjunction si, before the personal pronoun masculine, both in the singular

and in the plural: s'il vient, s'ils viennent.

According to du Marsais, the word apostrophe is masculine, when it means the sign which denotes the omission of the final vowel. "It is wrong," says he, "to mark it feminine in all dictionaries, even that of the Academy."

OF THE HYPHEN.

The hyphen, called tiret or trait d'union, is a little straight horizontal dash, in this manner (-), which is

placed between words which we wish to unite.

The hyphen is placed between the radical words of compounds, as: gentil-homme, arc-en-ciel, garde-fou, but it should never be put between those which are merely in composition, as: au dessus, au dessous, c'est à dirc, peu à peu, &c. but, in spite of all that has been said by men of letters, printers have obstinately preserved it in those words.

We also put it after the verb, when it is followed by a pronoun subject, whatever may be the reason of that transposition, as: irai je? puissiez-vous! étoit-ce

Iui?

OBSERVATION. When these words il, elle, on, are thus transposed after a verb ending with a vowel, we place between the two a t cuphonical, which we separate from the verb by a hyphen, and from the

pronoun by another, as: m'aime-t-il? viendra-t-elle?

les approuve-t-on?

We also put it after the first and second persons of the imperative, when they are followed by the pronouns moi, toi, nous, vous, le, lu, lui, les, leur, y and en, as: donnez-moi, prétez-lui, allez-y, &c. When they are followed by two, each pronoun is preceded by a diaræsis, as: rendez-le-lui, donnez-nous-les.

It is likewise put between these words: ceux-ci, ceux-là, ce livre-ci, &c. ho-çà, oui-dà; but we write without any hyphen: de cà, de là, venez cà,

il ira là.

We think it proper to mention, that the Academy write the words which are compound of the prepositions entre and contre, sometimes with, sometimes without, a hyphen: about all such words recourse must be had to the dictionary.

OF THE DIARESIS.

The diaræsis, called *tréma*, is a figure composed of two dots disposed horizontally in this manner (') which is put over the vowels e, i, u, to show that they are to be pronounced separately from the vowel contiguous to it. We write hair, aïcux, ambigüc, cigüe, Saiil, &c.

We write without a diaresis the vowel preceded or followed by é fermé, as: déiste, réussir, envié, because the acute accent is sufficient to show that the é and i, and the é and u, are to be pronounced sepa-

rately.

We also write without a diaræsis statue, étendue, vue, &c. because the pronunciation is the same, with or without it: but we must place it over the u, preceded by g, when that u is to be pronounced by itself; otherwise, it could not be distinguished from the u which forms one syllable with the e mute. It is the diaræsis alone that shows the distinction between cigüe and intrigue.

OBSERVATIONS. 1°. It were to be wished that the ä and ö had been adopted; we would thus have

obviated a difficulty, which greatly puzzles foreigners, and even Frenchmen themselves. They would know that we ought to say: aorte, aoute, and aorise, aoûtenor; nous arguons, il argua, and nous narguons, il

nargua; irrémédiable, and diable.

2°. We ought not to use i, instead of y, when this letter stands for two ii's. We must write: voyelle, royaume, pays, essuyer, employer, &c. because such a substitution would oblige us to pronounce: vo-ielle, ro-iaume, pa-is, &c. We make this observation, because this spelling is to be found in many books printed in foreign countries.

OF THE CÉDILLE.

The cédille is a small figure like this (,), placed under the c, when, on account of the etymology, we preserve that c before a, o, u, although we do not give it the hard pronunciation, which it has before those vowels. Thus, from glace, glacer, we write glaçant, glaçon; from France, François; from recevoir, reçu, &c. where we see that the accidental sound of the c is preserved by means of the cédille.

OF THE PARENTHESIS.

By parenthesis we understand two crochets or little arches, opposed one to the other by their concavity, between which we place an accessary, but complete sense, which interrupts the continuity of the principal sense. It is no longer used by good writers; therefore, it is needless to give any examples of it.

Such are the signs of orthography, of which we are going to explain the principles, when we have

said a few words about capitals.

Capital letters, otherwise called majuscules, are destined by custom, 1°. to compose the titles of books. 2°. to begin all sentences and each line of poetry. 3° to be at the head of all proper names of men, places, and festivals: David, Londres, Noël.

As for the names of arts, sciences and dignities, we are to examine whether they are the principal subject of discourse, or whether they are used in a general or

adjective sense. In the first instance, we write: La Philosophie est utile dans la plupart des circonstances de la vie. La connoissance des principes de la Grammaire est essentielle pour bien (crire. Les devoirs des Rois ne sont pas des choses indifférentes. But, in the second instance, we say: l'Epicuréisme est un genre de philosophie très-commode. Les Synenimes de l'Abbé Girard renferment d'excellens principes de grammaire. La mort n'épargne ni les rois ni les empercurs. Il est empereur et roi.

Usage also requires that, in epistles to the king, we should write the personal pronoun regimen with a capital, as: Grand Roi, pour Te louer. . . . c'esz

pour Toi seul.

ART. I.

THE ORTHOGRAPHY OF SUBSTANTIVES.

See page 56, the formation of the plural of substantives, as well as the exceptions. The following are

the most important observations.

I. Through a custom which has obtained in most printing-offices, we omit, in the plural, the final t of words ending, in the singular, in nt; but it is in polysyllables only; for, it is preserved in monosyllables. We write: parlement, parlemens; gant, gants. The word gens is the only one excepted, and it is never spelt with a t. There is no inconvenience in this change, with regard to substantives: nevertheless, Mr. Didot, whose editions do so much honour to the French presses, has constantly rejected it. The Academy admits it.

II. The final consonants of most words are not pronounced. In order to know whether there is in a word a final consonant which is not sounded, we must recur to its derivatives. Thus, we shall know that we are to write plomb, dard, sourcil, sanglet, &c. since their derivatives are, plomber, darder, sourciller, sangleter, &c. We shall find that we must spell fard and art, because farder is derived from the first, and

artifice from the second.

III. The substantives formed of verbs end in ment,

and they are formed by changing the participle present into ement. Thus, of reniant and agréant, we form reniement and agrément. The Academy have preserved the e mute in some of these words and dropped it in others. They write châtiment and erucifiement, dégravoiment and aboiement. This motly kind of spelling is a burthen on our memory, and present usage inclines towards the total omission of this useless e; but, as it is not yet general, it is best to conform to the orthography of the Academy's dictionary, which often gives the two spellings.

IV. The nasal vowels am, an, can, cm, en, have the same sound. Am and em are used before b, m, p and ph: ambiguité, emmener, emporter, amphibic; and an or en, before any other consonant, and in compound words derived from a noun and a verb: ancre,

encre, enrôlement, &c. We except néanmoins.

But there is another difficulty which is not so easily removed, which is, to know whether we are to write the words with am, an, or with em, cn. Some lay it down as a rule, that we ought to follow the Latin orthography; but, beside that this rule is unknown to nineteen out of twenty of those that speak French, it is not always safe: for, if we write ambition, année, empreinte, cendre, on account of the Latin etymology, we also write, notwithstanding that etymology: rampe, damnation, langue, convenance. The safest way, therefore, when there is any doubt, is to have recourse to the dictionary.

V. The nasal vowels im, in, aim, ain, ein, have also the same sound; but it is easy to know which we are to use. When this sound begins the word, we ought to make use of im, in: impoli, incivil.

We only except ainsi and the old word ains.

When this sound is in the body of the word, we must consider its derivatives. We write faim, fin, pain, sercin, since the derivatives are famine, finir, panetier, sérénité. When the words do not come under this rule, we are forced to recur to the Latin orthography and much better to the dictionary.

IV. The masal vowels om, on and con, have the

same sound. On is oftenest to be found. Om is only in the words where that sound is followed by b, m, p; except comte (earl) and its derivatives. We also write automne, nom, pronom.

Eon is never used but in these words: bourgeon, dongeon, or donjon, drugeon, esturgeon, pigeon, plon-

geon, sauvageon and surgeon.

VII. The three nasal vowels um, un and eun have the same sound. Um has but one word parfum, and eun has but this, à jeun.

VIII. Au and eau have the same sound. Au is final, only in boyau, étau, gruau, hoyau, joyau, noyau, Pau (a town), préau, tuyau: in words which have a final consonant in the singular: défaut, la faux, &c. and in the plural of the words in al; maux, &c. In the body of a word, we write au, when this sound is not the last syllable: aumone, chauffage, &c. We except pscaume, although we write psautier.

Eau is written in final syllables, and in the compounds of beau and nouveau. We write hameau,

troupeau, beauté, nouveauté, &c.

IX. Eu and &u. We write with &u: næud, væu. œuf, sæur, les mæurs, bæuf, mæuf, cæur, chæur. All the other words are spelt with eu: heureux, demeurer, le jeu. Eux is affected to the adjectives and to the plural of nouns in eu.

X. Ace and asse. The words in ace are: audace, besace, bonace, contumace, coriace, Dace, dédicace, efficace, espace, face, glace, grâce, grimace, limace, Pancrace, place, populace, Thrace, trace, vivace, vo-

race and villace.

All the other words are in asse, as well as all the imperfects of the subjunctive in the first conjugation : becasse, que j'aimasse, &c.

XI. Ece and esse. We write with ece: la Grèce, espèce, Lucrèce, Lutèce (the ancient name of Paris),

nièce, pièce, il dépèce.

All the other words are written with esse: advesse,

tendresse, &c.

The termination in esce is only found in vesce (vetch), and in il acquiesce: but that in aisse is in all the terminations of the verbs in aisser: je laisse, il délaisse, &c. and in la graisse, la caisse and l'abaisse,

(the under-crust of a pye, &c.)

XII. Ice and isse. The words in isse are: abscisse, Clarisse, coulisse, écrevisse, esquisse, jaunisse, lisse, (even) la mélisse, Pythonisse, réglisse, saucisse, Suisse, Ulysse, and the imperfect of the subjunctive in verbs whose preterit definite of the indicative ends in is: que je sinisse, rendisse, &c.

All the rest are in ice: lice, calice, &c.

XIII. Oce and osse. We write in oce: atroce, féroce, nígoce, noce, prícoce, sacerdoce.

The other words are in osse: la basse, l'Ecosse, &c.

XIV. Uce and usse. The words in uce are: le prépuce, Ela puce, il suce (from sucer), aumuce, spelt by some aumusse.

The termination in usse is found in un Russe, la Prusse and in the imperfect of verbs in the subjunctive: que je voulusse, vécusse, &c. XV. Isfe and iphe. We write in isse: chisse, la

griffe, il biffe, il attiffe, and with one f, pontife.

The other words are in iphe: apocryphe, logogriphe.

XVI. Afe and aphc. The words in afe are:

agrafe, carafe, parafe, patarafe.

The rest are in aphe: géographe, &c.

XVII. Offe and ophe. Offe, is to be found, only

in étoffe, and its derivatives.

The latter is found only XVIII. Aine and cine. in aveine, baleine, kaleine, peine, reine, veine, verveine, la Seine, and Mardeleine.

All the rest are in aine: fontaine, plaine, &c. XIX. Ance and ence. We write with a: abondance, constance, vigilance, &c. and with e: prudence, conscience, absence, &c. In this respect, we follow the Latin orthography; but, as few persons can refer to it, the dictionary ought to be consulted, when any doubt arises.

XX. Enc and enne. We write in enne: antenne, couenne, étrenne, garenne, renne. Also Rennes, Varenne, Vienne, (names of towns).

All the rest are in ene: ébène, &c.

Here, we must observe that most verbs are spelt with a single n: il égrène, il mène, &c. But usage requires that it should be doubled in the verbs ending

in enir, endre: qu'il vienne, qu'il prenne, &c.

XXI. Erre and aire. We write in erre: Angleterre, cimeterre, équerre, erre, erres, functerre, guerre, lierre, parterre, Pierre, la serre, la terre, le tonnerre, le verre, and their compounds: as also the verbs il atterre, déferre, desserre, déterre, erre, ferre, serre.

All the rest are in aire: affaire, repaire, &c.

plaire, &c.

XXII. Aitre and être. The words in aitre are: maître, traitre, naître, paitre, and their compounds.

All the rest are in être: fenetre, le hêtre, champé-

tre, &c. être and its compounds peut-être, &c.

XXIII. Ale and alle. The words in alle are: la balle, la dalle, galle (galnut), Galles (Wales), la halle. la malle, la salle, la stalle and intervalle; also the verbs il emballe, installe.

All the rest are in ale.

XXIV. Ule and ulle. The words in ulle are: nulle (feminine of nul), bulle, Tulles (a town), Catulle, Raimond-Lulle and Tibulle.

All the rest are in ulc.

XXV. Ate and atte. The words in atte are: une batte, une chatte, une datte, une matte, une patte, as well as the verbs il flatte, gratte, qu'il batte.

All the rest are in atc.

XXVI. Ete and ette. Substantives and adjectives are generally in ette: aigrette, nette, &cc. We except: agonothète, anachorète, athlète, axipète, centripète, comète, diète, diabète, épithète, planète, poète, prophète, rubète and the adjectives complète, discrète, inquiète, replète, secrète. As for verbs, those in eter or éter, are in ète: j'achète, je préte, il inquiète, &cc. except je cachette: but those in ettre have always tt: que je mette, &c.

XXVII. Ite and itte. This last termination is to

be found only in quitte and its compounds.

XXVIII. The words in sion, tion, vion and Aion, are very puzzling for persons who do not know Latin; for they conform to its orthography.

We write in sion the words in which this termination is preceded by l, n or r, as: émulsion, as-

cension, version, &c.

The words in tion are 1° . The exceptions after n and r which are, for n: attention, circonvention, contention, convention, detention, intention, invention, manutention, obvention, prétention, prévention, subvention; and for r: assertion, désertion, insertion, portion and proportion. 2° . All the words in which the termination tion is preceded by any other letter than l, n, r, as: nation, motion, question, mixtion, &c.

T preserves its proper sound in the nouns in which it is preceded by s or x: question, mixtion; it is pronounced as in natif, motif. Otherwise, it takes the accidental sound of s; attention is pronounced at-

tension.

We write with x: complexion, connexion, flexion, fluxion, génuflexion, inflexion, Ixion and réflexion.

All the rest are in Etion: action, &c.

XXIX. The letters gu form a syllable of themselves, in the terminations of the verbs arguer; in the substantives ciguë, ambiguïté, contiguïté, and in the adjectives, aiguë, ambiguë, contiguë.

XXX. Ge, gi and je, ji, having the same sound, one is often at a loss to know what ought to be the

orthography of words.

1°. We use the j and not the g, in almost all the words in which we hear the sound of ja, jo, ju: jalousie,

joli, jujubier, &c.

EXCEPTION. We except geole and its compounds: the tenses of the verbs in ger: il mangea, nous nageons, &c. The words gageure, mangeure, &c. which are pronounced: jole, manja, gajure, &c., and this is the reason of the e being put after g, in order to soften the proper sound of this letter. With regard to the last words, we have to observe that they are pronounced with the sound of u, although we pronounce as eu, gageur, mangeur.

20. The words, in the middle or at the end of which we hear the sound of je, ji, are spelt with ge,

gi: agissant, rougir, &c.

Exception. We except abject, adjectif, assujetir, conjecture, dejection, se dejecter, dejecuner, injecter, interjection, interjecter, je, jectigation, jectices, Jehova, jejunum, Jérémie, le jet, jetée, jeu, Jeudi, à jeun, jeune, majesté, majeur, objecter, objet, rejet, sujet, trajet, &c. and their compounds: a few proper names: Jean, Jéhu, Jérusalem, &c.

3°. We ought never to use j before i. except through elision in the pronoun je, as: j'ignore, j'instruis, &c. and every where else we write g, as:

gibier, giboulée, &c.

XXXI. There are two difficulties with respect

to s.

1°. In the nouns compound of the prepositions de, pre, re, and the simple of which begins with s, sometimes it is not doubled, as in pressentiment, ressource, &c. although, in both cases, it is the same pronunciation. Sometimes even, the e which precedes the s is pronounced as acute, ressusciter, and sometimes as mute: dessus, dessous, ressembler, ressource. For this orthography, we must have recourse to the dictionary, in case of any doubt.

2°. We have seen that s, between two vowels, has the sound of z; but there are words which ought to be spelt with this last letter. These are: Azamoglan, Azebro, azerole, azinut, Azof, Azoth, azur, azime, Bazas, Beziers, bézoard, bizarre, la buze, Byzance, douze, la gaze, la huze, gazette, gazon, gazouiller, onze, quatorze, quinze, seize, treize, trapèze, zizanie, and perhaps a few more; also several names

of cities, as: Maizières, Mouzon, &c.

ART. II.

THE ORTHOGRAPHY OF ADJECTIVES.

See page 61, the formation of the feminine of adjectives; page 63, the formation of the plural; and page 70, the observations upon nouns of number.

Li

We have now to add:

1°. That there is a very great inconvenience attending the omission of the t, in the plural of adjectives, ending in the singular in nt; for, if we write, in the masculine plural, paysans and bienfaisans, will not a foreigner conclude that the feminine plural is the same for those two words, and therefore, that they ought to say, in the feminine, paysantes, because we say bienfaisantes? or that they are to say bienfaisannes, because we say paysannes? If they do not attend to the singular, analogy must lead them to either of these conclusions. The present practice of the Paris presses, except Didot's, is therefore, extremely wrong. Nevertheless, we must own that the Academy adopts the practice.

The adjective tout always drops the t in the plural

masculine-we write tous.

2°. That we ought to write nu, feu, demi, in the cases specified, page 67; and that we ought also to omit the e in the adjective grande, marking, nevertheless, that suppression by an apostrophe, in the following words: grand'mère, grand'messe, grand'chambre, grand'salle, grand'ehère, grand'chose, grand'merci, à

grand'peine, grand'peur, grand'pitié.

3°. That Mr. Beauzée, in his dissertation, inserted in the Encyclopedia, and the other neographers, who will not have the consonant to be doubled in the feminine of adjectives, when that doubling is not necessary for the sound, ground their opinions on reasons which are sometimes very plausible; but that the doubling of it is sanctioned by usage, and most probably will always be so. The Academy preserves it.

ART. III.

THE ORTHOGRAPHY OF PRONOUNS.

See what we have said upon this sort of words, and especially upon tont, quelque que, quel que.

We have at present to add,

1°. That leur never takes s at the end, when it is joined to a verb, as it then stands for à eux, à elles, as: je suis content de ces enfans; je leur donnerai un prix. But this pronoun takes s, when it is jomed to

a substantive plural, as it then stands for d'eux, d'elles, as : un père aime ses enfans, mais il n'aime pas leurs

difauts.

2°. That we put no accent over the o in notre, votre, when these pronouns are joined to a noun, as: votre père, notre maison: but that we place the circumflex accent over the o in le nôtre, le vôtre, la nôtre, la vôtre, as: mon livre est plus beau que le vôtre; votre maison est micux située que la nôtre.

ART. IV.

THE ORTHOGRAPHY OF VERBS.

In the singular of the present of the indicative,

1°. If the first person end in c, we add s to the second, and the third is like the first: j'aime, tu aimes,

il aime.

2°. When the first person ends in s or w. the second is like the first, and in the third we change s or w, into t: je finis, tu finis, il finit: je veux, tu veux, il veut.

3°. As in the verbs cre, tre and drc, not ending in indre, the first and second persons are in cs, ts or ds, we merely omit the s in the third: je convaines, tu convaines, il convaine; je combats, tu combats, il combat; je rends, tu rends, il rend.

The plural is always in ons, ez, ent; nous aimons,

vous aimez, ils aiment.

OBSERVATIONS. 1º. The second person singular in every tense always ends in s. The letter κ , which we sometimes find at the end of the second person, in the present of the indicative, is not an exception, since this κ has only the sound of s; for this reason, our neographers would have us use the s instead of that κ which is useless.

20. The second persons plural, in almost all the simple tenses, ought to be spelt with \approx and not with s, because this is what distinguishes them from the participle past in és: vous aimez, vous êtes aimés. The great number of Dutch editions which are circulating n England has induced us to make this observation.

As for any exceptions to what we are going to say

in this article, see the irregular verbs.

The imperfect is always, for the singular, in ois, ois, oit, and for the plural, in ions, icz, otent; there is no exception: j'aimois, tu aimois, il aimoit; nous aimions, vous aimiez, ils aimoient.

OBSERVATION. We have seen that oi has various sounds; sometimes that of è grave open, and sometimes that of the diphthong in which we hear both the o and the i: these two sounds are found in je voiturois.

To remedy this imperfection, the Abbé Girard proposed that ai should be changed into ai : but, having found that by avoiding an inconvenience, he was falling into another, he retracted, in his Vrais Principes de la Langue Françoise, ou la Parole réduite en Méthode, conformément aux Loix de l'Usage. Voltaire, however, adopted this change, and his example was followed by some few young literati; but the Academy has constantly opposed it, because ai has also two sounds (for, we do not speak here of that of e mute in faisant) viz: that of é acute, in j'aimai, and that of è grave, in jamais, sounds which may also be found in j'aimais, which would be as vicious as the two sounds of je voiturois. Besides, it also happens that, in this system, ai in the preterit definite and the future, has a sound different from that of ai in the imperfect and the conditional, all which increases the difficulty instead of lessening it.

Duclos is the only one that has been consistent, by proposing that oi should be changed into è grave open: je voiture's, je voiturerès; but this change has not been better relished than the other. See what is said of this

sound, p. 4.

The preterit definite has four terminations.

1º. In ai, as, a, âmes, âtes, èrent : j'aimai, tu aimas, il aima, nous aimâmes, vous aimâtes, ils aimèrent.

2°. In is, is, it, imes, ites, irent : je finis, tu finis,

il finit, nous finîmes, vous finites, ils finirent.

3°. In ins, ins, int, înmes, întes, invent : je vins, tu vins, il vint, nous vinmes, vous vintes, ils vinvent.

4°. In us, us, ut, âmes, âtes, urent : je reçus, tu reçus, il reçut, nous reçumes, vous reçutes, ils reçurent.

The future of the indicative is always in rai, ra, ras, rons, rez, ront: j'aimerai, tu aimeras, il aimera, nous aimerons, vous aimerez, ils aimeront. There is no exception.

The present of the conditional is in rois, rois, roit, rions, riez, roient: j'aimerois, tu aimerois, il aimeroit, nous aimerions, vous aimeriez, ils aimeroient. This

also is without exception.

OBSERVATIONS. 1º. Our neographers change also, in the conditional, oi into ai, but with as little foundation. We insist upon this important point, because there are teachers, who make their pupils adopt this manner of spelling, as the most conformable to usage, although it has been constantly rejected by the best writers and by the French Academy, the only tribunal that has a right to decide upon orthography.

20. We must never put e before rai, in the future, and rois, in the conditional, except in the first conjugation. We ought to write: je recevrai, je rendrai, je courrerois.

The verb encillir, however, makes ie cueillerai.

33. In poetry we sometimes omit this c, in some verbs of the first conjugation, when it is not pronounced: il agréra, il prina j'agrérois je prirois. Our neographers would have that ouismen to take place in prose; but they ought not to be instated.

The present of the subjunctive is in e, es, e, ions, icz, ent: que j'aime, que tu aimes, qu'il aime, que nous

aimions, que vous aimiez, qu'ils aiment.

The imperfect of the subjunctive has four ter-

minations.

1°. In asse, asses, at, assions, assicz, assent: que j'aimasse, que tu aimasses, qu'il aimat, que nous aimassicz, qu'ils aimassent.

20. In isse, isses, it, issions, issions, is ent: que je finisses, que tu finisses, qu'il finit, que nous finissions, que

vous finissica, qu'ils finiscent.

3º. In insse, insses, int, inssens, inssens, inssens que je vinsse, que tu vinsses, qu'il vint, que nous a lussions, que vous vinssez, qu'ils vinssent.

Lig

4°. In usse, usses, ût, ussions, ussiez, ussent: que je reçusse, que tu reçusses, qu'il reçût, que nous reçussions, que vous reçussiez, qu'ils reçussent.

The present of the infinitive has four terminations, viz: er, aimer: ir, finir: oir, recevoir: re, rendre.

The participle present always ends in ant: ai-

mant, finissant, recevant, rendant.

The participle past has various terminations, the principal of which are: in é acute, aimé: in i, fini: in u, reçu: some are in ert, ouvert: in is, pris: in uit, réduit: in int, plaint, &c.

See the formation of the tenses, page 153.

OBSERVATION. We have remarked, page 3, that ai has the sound of e mute in faisant, je faisois, nous faisons, &cc. as also in the derivatives: contre-faisant, &cc. and, page 23, that bienfaisant, bienfaisance, have the same sound in conversation, because such is the pronunciation of all those that speak well, and because this practice is general at Paris. Our neographers have not failed to substitute the e mute in the place of ai: but this change has been rejected by our best writers, except Voltaire and a few others, and particularly by the Academy, who have only marked the pronunciation of ai in those words. This orthography has indeed been adopted in some Printing-offices of the metropolis, but Mr. Didot, whose authority will certainly prevail before long, has constantly adhered to the old spelling.

ART. V.

THE GRTHOGRAPHY OF ADVERBS.

The following adverbs require the acute accent before ment, viz. aisément, aveuglément, commodément, communément, conformément, délibérément, démesurément, désespérément, désordonnément, déterminément, effrontément, inormément, expressément, figurément, importunément, impunément, incommodément, inconsidérément, indéterminément, inespérément, inopinément, malaisément, modérément, nommément, obscurément, obstinément, opin atrément, passionément, posément, précisément, prématurément, privément, profondément, profusément, proportionnément, sensément, séparément, profusément, séparément,

serrément, subordinément. The others ought to be with-

out, although spelt in the same manner.

We write in one word: alors, auprès, aussitôt, autrefois, autour, bientôt, enfin, ensuite, lorsque, parce que (in two words) plutôt, pour quoi, puisque, quelquefois, toutefois, but we write in two words: dès lors, pour lors, de près, de loin, assez tôt, assez tard, plus tard, au bout, au devant, une fois, par fois, à la fin, à la suite, par ce que (in three words), pour qui, pour noi, &c.

In this little treatise, we have cleared up the principal difficulties of the French orthography, and given an accurate explanation of the present practice, agreeably to the decisions of the Academy. To complete its utility, we have only to add a few reflections on the

doubling of consonants.

The numerous partisans of the old orthography are for doubling the consonants, whenever it is conformable to etymology, or when it denotes the quantity. Our neographers, on the contrary, object to it, on the ground that it is sometimes against both etymology and quantity. Without entering into a discussion which is foreign to these elements, we shall establish some principles which may prove useful in this matter, and which besides, are agreeable to the orthography of the Academy and of Mr. Didot.

It is generally agreed that the consonants h, j, k, q, v, x and z are never doubled, and that it is conformable to the genius of our language to dispense with the doubling of b and p: but that c, d, f, g, l, m, n, r, s, and t, are more or less susceptible of being doubled.

PRINCIPLE I. No consonant is doubled after a vowel, either long, or marked with a circumflex accent, nor after a nasal sound; so that we generally find it only after short vowels. We write: côte, and botte,

bâtiment and battre, tête and nette, &c.

PRINCIPLE II. We ought to double the consonant in the formation of the tenses of verbs, when it is double at the root, which is the infinitive. We write:
nous donnons, vous lutterez, vous me promettriez, because the infinitives are: donner, lutter, promettre.

In a work lately printed at Paris, we have found efter and il jette, and in the preterit and participle past,

il jeta, elle fut jetée. The spelling of the Academy is: jeter, je jette, je jetois, j'ai jeté, je jetterai, je

jetterois.

PRINCIPLE III. When a vowel begins a compound word, we generally double the following consonant, when, after that consonant, there is a vowel. Thus, we write: accourir, affermir, opposer, desserer, difficile, &c.

One may very well suppose that there are exceptions to the above principles; but this proves how cautious we should be, when we meet with any deviation from them, especially in the formation of the

feminine of adjectives.

OBSERVATIONS. 10. We never double b and g in words beginning with a: abréger, agréger, abaisser, agrandir, &cc. except in Abbeville (a town of Picardy), abbé, and its derivatives; aggraver, and its derivatives.

2°. In words beginning with ad, the doubling of the consonant takes place, only in these four words: addition, additionner, adduction and adduction.

CHAP. XIV.

OF PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of denoting in writing, by means of certain signs agreed upon, the proportion of pauses which are to be made in speaking. For, the tepose of the voice in discourse, and the signs of punctuation in writing, ought always to correspond.

The signs of junctuation are, la virgule, the comma (,), le point avec la virgule, the semicolon (;), les deux points, the colou (:), and le point, the period or full stop (.), to which we may add the exclamation point (!), and the interrogative point (?).

OF THE COMMA.

The comma marks the shortest pause possible. It is used,

1°. Before the similar parts of the same proposition, provided there be more than two, and that none of them be abdivided into subaltern ones.

EXAMPLE

Of several subjects.

La richesse, le plaisir, la santé, deviennent des maux pour ceux qui ne savent pas en user.

EXAMPLE

Of several attributes under the same subject.

Un prince d'une naissance incertaine, nourri par une femme sans mœurs, élevé par des bergers, et depuis devenu chef de brigans, jetta les premiers fondemens de la capitale du monde.

EXAMPLE

Of several verbs relating to the same subject.

Il alla dans cette coverne, trouva les instrumens, abattit les peupliers, et mit en un seul jour un vaisseau en état de voguer.

2°. When there are but two similar parts, they are either separate, or joined by a conjunction. If they be separate, we make use of the comma: des anciennes mœurs, un certain usage de la pauvreté, rendoient à Rome les fortunes à peu près égales. If they be joined by a conjunction, we make use of the comma, when they are of some length: il formoit ces foudres dont le bruit a retenti dans tout le monde, et ceux qui grondent encore sont sur le point d'éclater. Otherwise we put no comma: l'imagination et le jugement ne sont pas toujours d'accord.

3°. We place between two commas any incidental proposition which is merely explanatory: les passions, qui sont les maladies de l'ame, ne viennent que de notre révolte contre la raison. But we do no not divide by commas an incidental proposition which is determinative: la gloire des grands hommes se doit toujours mesurer aux moyens dont ils se sont servis pour l'ac-

quérir.

4°. We put the comma after an adjective or participle followed by a complement, whether it begin or end the sentence: avides de plaisirs, nous nous flattons d'en recevoir de tous les objets inconnus qui semblent nous en promettre. Le fruit meurt en naissant, dans son germe infecté. It is the same with a prepo-

sition which, with its complement, expresses a circumstance.

5°. We place a comma after every addition which cannot be considered as making part of the grammatical construction of a sentence, when that addition is at the beginning; and we place it between two commas, when it is in the body of the sentence. We also place between two commas what was formerly placed between two crotchets.

OF THE SEMICOLON.

The semicolon denotes a pause a little longer. It is used,

1º. To separate phrases which are under the same regimen: qu'un vieillard joue le rôle d'un jeune homme, lorsqu'un jeune homme jouera le rôle d'un vieillard; que les habillemens ne répondent pas à la dignité des personnages; toutes ces discordances nous blessent.

2°. Before a phrase following another on which it is depending: l'auteur, pour bien écrire, doit être également attentif aux choses qu'il dit, et aux termes dont il se sert; afin qu'il y ait du vrai et du goût dans ses

ouvrages.

3°. Between the different members of a period, when they are of some length, and they are composed of several parts already divided by commas: cette persuasion, sans l'évidence qui l'accompagne, n'auroit pas été si ferme et si durable; elle n'auroit pas acquis de nouvelles forces en vicillissant; elle n'auroit pu résister au torrent des années, et passer de siècle en siècle jusqu'à nous, &c.

OF THE COLON.

The colon denotes a pause still longer. It is used, 1°. After a sentence which is complete, but followed by another which either explains or extends it: si les beautés de l'élocution oratoire ou poétique étoient palpables, rien ne seroit plus commun que l'éloquence; un médiocre génie pourroit y atteindre : et quelquefois, faute de les connoître assez, un homme né jour l'éloquence reste en cheman, ou s'égare en route.

2°. After a proposition announcing an enumeration, under a general relation: il y a dans la nature de l'homme deux principes opposés: l'amour propre, qui nous rappelle à nous; et la bienveillance, qui nous répand.

3°. After having announced a direct discourse which we are going to relate: lorsque j'entendis les seènes du paysan, dans le Faux Généreux, je dis: voilà qui plaira à toute la terre et dans tous les temps, &c.

OBSERVATION. It is easy to see by the examples which we have quoted, that all this principally refers to the periodic style; for, the familiar has fewer difficulties.

OF THE PERIOD.

The period denotes the longest pause of any we have mentioned. It is placed after a sense entirely and completely finished in itself. Nevertheless, it may also denote longer or shorter pauses, as we shall have some day occasion to show.

The interrogative point is put at the end of a sen-

tence expressing an interrogation.

The exclamation, or admiration point is put at the end of those expressing surprise, terror, pity, &c. or after an interjection.

EXAMPLES.

En effet, dès qu'elle parut; "Ah! mademoiselle, comment se porte M. mon trère?" Sa pensée n'osa aller plus loin. "Madame, il se porte bien de sa blessure." "Et mon fils?" On ne lai répondit rien. "Ah, mademoiselle!" "Mon fils! mon cher enfant! répondez-moi, est-il mort sur le champ? N'a-t-il pas eu un seul moment? Ah! mon Dieu! quel sacrifice!"

As a treatise on punctuation is common to all languages, we shall give in a future work some further particulars, of which this compandium is not susceptible; and we shall, moreover, make the application of the rules to a great piece of eloquence.

FREE EXERCISES.

I. SENSIBILITY.

On a fine summer evening, my brother, sister and I, we we were walking in a meadow not far distant from the castle which we inhabit. We were contemplating, with rapture, the majestic scenery which nature exhibits at the approach of night; when we perceived, at the foot of an antique oak, a boy of the most interesting figure. His beauty, his air of ingenuity and candour, his graces, struck us, and we approached him. "What! quite alone here?" did we ask. "I am not alone," answered he, smiling, " I am not alone; but I was fatigued, and I have been sitting under the shade of this tree, while my mother is busy gathering some simples, to give some alleviation to the pains which her old father suffers. Ah! how many troubles my good mamma has! how many troubles! Did you know them, your heart would be touched with pity, and you could not refuse her a tribute of tears." We said to him: " Lovely child, thy ingenuity, candour, innocence, every thing interests us in thy misfortunes and those of thy mother. Relate them to us." He immediately related the history of his mother, with an expression, a naïveté, a grace altogether affecting. Our hearts felt the liveliest emotions; tears trickled down our cheeks, and we gave him what little money we had about us. In the mean time, the mother came: as soon as he saw her, he exclaimed: "Run, mamma, run: see what these good little folks have given me: I have related to them thy misfortunes: they have been affected at them, and their sensibility has hot been satisfied with shedding tears. See, mamma, ah! see what they have been giving me." The mother felt softened; she thanked us, and said: " Generous, sensible souls, the good action which you have just been doing shall not be lost: HE who sees every thing and judges of every thing will not let it go unrewarded."

II.

THE GOOD MINISTER.

AN EASTERN FABLE.

The great Aaron Raschild began to suspect that his Vizir Giafar was not deserving of the confidence which he had reposed in him. The women of Aaron, the inhabitants of Bagdad, the courtiers, the dervises, were censuring the Vizir with bitterness. The Calif loved Giafar; he would not condemn him upon the clamours of the city and the court: he visited his empire; every-where he saw the land well cultivated, the country smiling, the cottages opulent, the useful arts honoured, and youth full of gaiety. He visited his fortified cities and sea-ports; he saw numerous ships which threatened the coasts of Africa and of Asia: he saw warriors disciplined and content; these warriors, the seamen and the country-people, exclaimed: " O God I pour thy blessings upon the faithful, by giving them a Calif like Aaron, and a Vizir like Giafar!" The Calif, affected by these exclamations, enters a mosque, falls upon his knees and cries out: " Great God! I return thee thanks; thou hast given me 2 Vizir of whom my courtiers speak ill, and my people speak well!"

ST. LAMBERT.

HI.

A GENERAL FIEW OF NATURE.

With what magnificence does nature shine upon earth! A pure light, extending from east to west, gilds successively the two kemispheres of this globe; an element transparent and light surrounds it; a gentle fecundating heat animates, gives being to the seeds of life; salubrious spring waters contribute to their preservation and growth; rising grounds, distributed in the lands, stop the vapours of the air, make these springs inexhaustible and always new; immense cavities made to receive them divide the continents. The extent of the sea is as great as that of the earth: it is not a cold barren element; it

is a new empire as rich, as populous as the first. The finger of God has marked their boundaries.

The earth, rising above the level of the sea, is secure from its irruptions: its surface enamelled with flowers, adorned with a verdure constantly renewed, peopled with thousands and thousands of species of different animals, is a place of rest, a delightful abode, where man placed, in order to second nature, presides over all beings. The only one among all, capable of knowing and worthy of admiring, God has made him spectator of the universe, and a witness of his wonders. The divine spark with which he is animated makes him participate in the divine mysteries: it is by this light that he thinks and reflects; by it he sees and reads in the book of the universe, as in a copy of the deity.

Nature is the exterior throne of divine magnineence: man, who contemplates, who studies it, rises by degrees to the interior throne of omnipotence. Made to adore the Creator, he commands all creatures: vassal of heaven, king of the earth, he ennobles, peoples, enriches it; he establishes among the living beings order, subordination, harmony: he embellishes nature herself, he cultivates, extends and polishes it; lops off the thistle and the briar, and multiplies the grape and th rose.

BUFFON.

IV.

THE INSCRIPTION.

AN EASTERN FABLE.

Cosroes had caused the following inscription to be engraven on his diadem: "Many have possessed it; many shall possess it. O posterity! thou shalt imprint the traces of thy steps upon the dust of my grave."

What are thrones, fortune and victory, which glide away with the rapidity of lightning? Ye, arbiters of men, do good, if you wish to be happy; do good, if you wish that your me-

mory should be honoured; do good, if you wish that heaven should open to you its eternal gates.

ST: LAMBERT.

∇ .

CULTIVATED NATURE.

How beautiful is that cultivated nature! How, through the cares of man, it is brilliant and pompously adorned. himself is its chief ornament, its noblest production: by multiplying himself, he multiplies the most precious germ : she also seems to multiply herself with him: by his art he brings forth to light all that she concealed in her bosom. How many unknown treasures! how many new riches! flowers, fruits, seeds brought to perfection, multiplied to infinity: the useful species of animals transported, propagated, increased without number; the noxious species reduced, confined, banished: gold, and iron more necessary than gold, extracted from the bowels of the earth; torrents confined, rivers directed, contracted; the sea itself subjected, surveyed, crossed from one hemisphere to the other; the earth accessible in every part, and every-where rendered as lively as fruitful: in the vallies, delightful meadows; in the plains, rich pastures and still richer harvests; hills covered with vines and fruits, their summits crowned with useful trees and young forests; deserts changed into cities inhabited by an immense people, which continually circulating, spreads itself from those centers to the extremities; roads opened and frequented, communications established every-where, as so many witnesses of the strength and union of society; a thousand other monuments of power and glory, sufficiently demonstrate that man, possessing dominion over the earth, has changed, renewed the whole of its surface, and that, at all times, he shares the empire with nature.

Nevertheless, he only reigns by right of conquest; he rather enjoys than possesses, and he can preserve but by dint of cares

continually renewed. If they cease, every thing droops, every thing alters, every thing changes and again returns under the hand of nature : she reassumes her rights, erases the works of man, covers with dust and moss his most pompous monaments, destroys them in time, and leaves him nothing but the regret of having lost, through his fault, what his ancestors had conquered by their labour. Those times in which man loses his dominion, those barbarous ages, during which every thing is seen to perish, are always prepared by war, and accompanied by scarcity and depopulation. Man, who can do nothing but by number, who is strong only by reunion, who can be happy but by peace, is mad enough to arm himself for his misfortune, and to fight for his ruin. Impelled by insatiable avidity, blinded by ambition still more insatiable, he renounces all feelings of humanity, turns all his strength against himself, seeks for mutual destruction, actually destroys himself; and, after those days of blood and carnage, when the smoke of glory has vanished, he contemplates with a sad look the earth wasted, the arts buried, the nations dispersed, the people weakened, his own happiness ruined, and his real power annihilated.

BUFFON.

VI.

THE CONVERT.

AN EASTERN FABLE.

Divine mercy had brought a vicious man into a society of sages whose morals were holy and pure. He was touched by their virtues; it was not long before he imitated them and lost his old habits: he became just, sober, patient, laborious and beneficent. His deeds nobody could deny, but they were attributed to odious motives. They praised his good actions, without loving his person: they would always judge him by what he had been, not by what he was become. This injustice penetrated him with grief; he shed tears into the bosom of an ancient sage, more just and more humane than the others.

of O my son!" said the old man to him, "thou art better than thy reputation; be thankful to God for it. Happy the man who can say: my enemies and my rivals censure in me vices of which I am not guilty. What matters it, if thou art good, that men pursue thee as wicked! Hast thou not, to comfort thee, the two best witnesses of thy actions, God and thy conscience?"

ST. LAMBERT.

VII.

AGITATION OF THE WICKED, SERENITY OF THE JUST.

The wicked man dreads and avoids himself; he diverts his mind by throwing himself out of his own being; he casts looks of uneasiness around him, and seeks for an object that may amuse him; without bitter satire, without insulting raillery, he would always be sad; mocking laughter is his sole delight. On the contrary, the serenity of the just is internal; his smile is not of malignity, but of joy: he carries the source of it in himself; he is as lively, when by himself, as when in the midst of company; he does not draw his content from those who approach him, he communicates it to them.

J. J. ROUSSEAU.

VIII.

GENERAL VIEW OF NATURE.

Trees, shrubs and plants are the ornament and clothing of the earth. Nothing is so inclancholy as the prospect of a country naked and bare, exhibiting to the eyes nothing but stones, mud and sand. But vivified, by nature and clad in its noptial robe, amidst the course of waters and the singing of birds, the earth presents to man, in the harmony of the three kingdoms, a spectacle full of life, interest and charms, the only spectacle in this world of which his eyes and heart are never weary.

K k 3

The more a contemplative man's soul is fraught with sensibility, the more he yields to the cestacies which this harmony produces in him. A soft and deep melancholy then takes possession of his senses, and, in an ebriety of delights, loses himself in the immensity of that beautiful system, with which he feels himself identified. Then, every particular object escapes him, he sees and feels nothing but in the whole. 'Some particular circumstance must contract his ideas and circumscribe his imagination, before he can observe by parcels that universe which he was endeavouring to embrace.

J. J. ROUSSEAU.

IX.

INOVCATION TO THE GOD OF NATURE.

Almighty God, whose presence alone supports nature and maintains the harmony of the laws of the universe; Thou, who, from the immoveable throne of the empyrean, seest the eclestial spheres roll under thy feet, without shock and without confusion; who, from the bosom of repose, reproducest every moment their immense movements, and alone governest, in profound peace, that infinite number of heavens and worlds; restore, restore at length tranquillity to the agirated earth ! let it be silent! at thy voice, let discord and war rease the sound of their proud clamours! God of goodness, author of all beings, thy paternal looks take in all the objects of the creation: but man is thy chosen being; thou hast enlivened his soul with a ray of thy immortal light; complete the measure of thy kindness, by penetrating his heart with a ray of thy love : this divine sentiment, diffusing itself everywhere, will reconcile opposite natures; man will no longer dread the sight of man; his hand will no longer wield the murderous steel; the devouring fire of war will no longer dry up the source of generations; the human species now weakened, mutilated, mowed down in its blossom, will spring anew and multiply without number; nature overwhelmed under the weight of scourges, will soon reassume, with a new life, its

former fruitfulness; and we, beneficent God, will second it, we will cultivate it, we will contemplate it incessantly, that we may every moment offer thee a new tribute of gratitude and admiration.

BUFFON.

X. THOUGHTS ON POETRY.

Wherever I went, I found that poetry was considered as the highest learning, I and regarded 2 with a veneration somewhat approaching to that which man would pay to angelic nature.

It yet fills me with wonder that, in almost all countries, the most ancient poets are considered as the best; whether it be that every other kind of knowledge is an acquisition gradually attained, and poetry is a gift conferred at once; or that the first poetry of every nation surprised them as a novelty, and retained the credit by consent, which it received by accident at first: or whether, as the province 3 of poetry is to describe nature and passion, which are always the same, the first writers took possession of the most striking objects for description, and the most probable occurrences for fiction, and left nothing to those that followed them, but transcription 4 of the same events, and new combinations 5 of the same images. Whatever be the reason, it is commonly observed that the early writers are in possession of nature, and their followers of art: that the first excel in strength and invention, and the latter in elegance and refinement.

I was desirous to add my name to this illustrious fraternity. I read all the poets of Persia and Arabia, and was able to repeat by memory the volumes that are suspended in the mosque of Mecca. But I soon found that no man was ever great by imitation. My desire of excellence impelled me to transfer my attention to nature and to life. Nature was to be

¹ Part of literature. 2 Was looked upon as a kind of heavenly emanation. 3 The aim. 4 But to copy. 5 And to make new combinations.

my subject, and men to be my auditors: I could never describe what I had not seen: I could not hope to move those with delight or terror, 6 whose interests and opinions I did not understand.

Being now resolved to be a poet, I saw every thing with a new purpose; my sphere of attention was suddenly magnified: no kind of knowledge was to be overlooked. I ranged mountains and deserts for images and resemblances, 7 and pictured upon my mind every tree of the forest and flower of the valley. I observed with equal care the crags of the rock and the pinnacles of the palace. Sometimes, I wandered along the mazes of the rivulet, and sometimes, watched the changes of the summer-clouds. To a poet nothing can be useless. Whatever is beautiful, and whatever is dreadful, must be familiar to his imagination: he must be conversant 8 with all that is awfully vast or elegantly little. The plants of the garden, the animals of the wood, the minerals of the earth, and the meteors of the sky, must all concur to store his mind with inexhaustible variety; for, every idea is useful for the enforcement or decoration 9 of moral or religious truth; and he who knows most, will have most power of diversifying his scenes, and gratifying his reader with remote allusions and unexpected instruction.

All the appearances of nature I was, therefore, careful to study, 10 and every country which I have surveyed has contributed some hing to my poetical powers.

In so wide a survey, interrupted the prince, you must surely have left much unobserved. I have lived, till new, within the circuit of these mountains, and yet cannot walk abroad without the sight of something which I had never beheld before, or never heeded.

⁶ To awake delight or terror in those, whose, &c. 7 To gather images and resemblances. 8 He must observe. 9 To enforce, or set off the moral, &c. 10 I was studying with care all the, &c.

The business of a poet, said Imlac, is to examine, not the individual, but the species; to remark general properties and large appearances 11: he does not number the streaks of the tulip, or describe the different shades in the verdure of the forest. He is to exhibit, in his portraits of nature, such prominent and striking features 12, as recal the original to every mind; and must neglect the minuter discriminations 13, which one may have remarked, and another neglected, for those characteristics 14 which are alike obvious to vigilance and carelessness.

But the knowledge of nature is only half the task of a poet: he must be acquainted likewise with all the modes of life! 15 His character requires that he estimate the happiness and misery of every condition; observe the power of all the passions, in all their combinations, and trace the changes of the human mind, as they are modified by various institutions and accidental influences of climate or custom; from the sprightliness of infancy to the despondence of decrepitude. He must divest himself of the prejudices of his age or country; he must consider right and wrong in their abstracted and invariable state; he must disregard present laws and opinions, and rise to general and transcendental truths, which will always be the same: he must, therefore, content himself with the slow progress of his name, contemn the applause of his own time, and commit his claims to the justice of posterity. He must write as the interpreter of nature, and the legislator of mankind, and consider himself as presiding over the thoughts and manners of future generations, as a being superior to time and place.

His labour is not yet at an end: he must know many languages and many sciences; and, that his style may be worthy

¹¹ And appearances at large. 12 Of those features prominent and striking, which, &c.

¹³ These small differences.

¹⁴ And to apply himself to characterize, &c. 15 All the different aspects of human life, &c.

of his thoughts, must, by incessant practice, familiarize to himself ever delicacy of speech and grace of harmony.

s. JOHNSON.

XI.

OBSERVATION. As it is chiefly in poetry that the English language differs from the French, we now propose showing to the English learner how he is to proceed in order to transport into the French tongue the beauties of his poets. At the bottom of the page, will be found the decomposition of the sentences, accommodated to the genius of the French, so as nearly to point out the very expressions to be made use of in the translation. To look for elegance, perhaps even, for grammatical precision, would be use eless; we never intended it.

First follow nature, and your judgment frame By her just standard, which is still the same : Unerring nature, still divinely bright, One clear, unchang'd, and universal light, Life, force, and beauty, must to all impart; At once the source, and end, and test of art. 2 Art, from that fund, each just supply provides; Works without show, and without pomp presides: In some fair body thus th' informing soul With spirit feeds, with vigour fills the whole, Each motion guides, and every nerve sustains: Itself unseen, but in th' effects remains. 3 Some, to whom heav'n in wit has been profuse, Want as much more, to turn it to its use; For, wit and judgment often are at strife,

I Light clear, immutable and universal, nature, which nearers, and shanes always with a divine splendour, must impart to all she does, life, force and beauty.

² She is at once the source, &c.

⁹ So, in a fair body, unseen itself, but always rensible by its effects, the soul continually acting, feeds the whole with spirits, fills it with vigour, guides every motion of it, and sustains every nerve.

Tho' meant each others aid. 4 'Tis more to guide, than spur the muse's steed; Restrain his fury, than provoke his speed: The winged courser, like a gen'rous horse, Shows most true mettle, when you check its course. POPE.

XII.

DESCRIPTION OF THE GARDEN OF EDEN.

In this pleasant soil

His far more pleasant garden God ordain'd: 7 Out of the fertile ground he caused to grow All trees of noblest kind for sight, smell, taste; And all a mid the mis good the tree of life. High emment, L ming ambrosial fruit Of vegecable gold :; and next to life, Our death, the true of knowledge grew fast by, Knowledge of good cought dear, by knowing ill.

Southward thr ugh Eden went a river large, Nor chang'd its course, but through the shaggy hill

5 It is more difficult to guide than spur the courser of the muses, and to restrain its ardour than provoke its impetuosity.

6 The winged courser is like a generous horse: the more we strive to stop it in its rapid course, the more it shows unconquerable vigour.

7 In the middle of hat pleasant landscape, a far more

charming garden had 1 God for its disposer.

8 Of the fertile and he had caused to come out all most proper to charm the eyes, and the trees, the nobles flatter smell and tak

se, with majesty, the tree of life, 9 In the mid t

from which flowe cosia of liquid gold.

10 Not far f.c. cost the tree of knowledge, of good dear: fatal tree, the sprout of and ev l, which which has prod the state

^{4.} Some, to whom neaven has given wit with profusion, want as much yet, to know the use they ought to make of it; for, wit and judgment, though made to aid each other, are often in opposition.

Fass'd underneath ingulf'd1; for God had throws That mountain as his garden mound high rais'd Upon the rapid current, which through veins Of porous earth, with kindly thirst up drawn, Rose a fresh fountain, and with many a rill Water'd the garden 2; thence united fell Down the steep glade, and met the nether flood, Which from its darksome passage now appears, And now divided into four main streams, Runs diverse, wand'ring many a famous realm And country 3.

But rather to tell how, if art could tell, How from that saphir fount the crisped brooks, Rolling on orient pearl and sands of gold, With mazy error under pendant shades Ran nectar, visiting each plant, and fed Flow'rs worthy of Paradisc 4, which not nice art In beds and curious knots 5, but nature's boon Pour'd forth profuse on hill and dale and plain, Both where the morning sun first warmly smote The open field, and where the unpierc'd shade

nor in nosegays formed with art.

¹ To the south of Eden flowed a large river, of which the course never changed, but disappeared, ingulfed under a mountain.

² God having laid this mountain, which served (of) foundation to his garden, upon this rapid wave, which softly drawn up by the earth thirsty and porous, rose through its veins till the top, whence it issued like a clear fountain, and dividing into many rills, watered the garden.

³ United there, they fell from the steep mountain, and met the nether waters, which issued from their dark passage, divided now into four large rivers, which wandering, ran through many famous realms and countries.

⁴ But how is it possible (to) art to describe that fountain of saphir, of which the bright and sinuous brooks rolling on oriental pearl and sands of gold, formed numberless labyrinths under the shades that covered them, by pouring the nectar into every plant, and feeding flowers worthy of Paradise.

⁵ They were ranged neither in symetrical compartments

Imbrown'd the noontide bow'rs 10. Thus was this place A happy, rural seat, of various view 11;
Groves, whose rich trees wept odorous gum and balm,
Others whose fruit burnish'd with golden rind,
Hung amiable, Hesperian fables true,
If true, here only 12, and of delicious taste 13:
Betwixt them lawns, or level downs, and flocks
Grazing the tender herb, were interpos'd,
Or palmy hilloc 14; or the flow'ry lap
Of some irriguous valley spread her store,
Flow'rs of all hue, and without thorn the rose 15:
Another side, umbrageous grots and caves
Of cool recess 16, o'er which the mantling vine
Lays forth her purple grape, and gently creeps
Luxuriant 17; meanwhile, murmuring waters fall

II Thus the happy and rural seat charmed the eyes by its

variety.

12 Whatever fable says of the garden of the Hesperides

was really to be seen in the admirable garden of Eden.

13 There were to be seen, groves full of trees of the highest beauty, from which precious balms and odorous gums flowed: (to) the others hung bright and golden fruits, which charmed the eyes and delighted the taste.

14 Between these trees appeared carpets of green, and on the declivity of the vallies and palmy hillocks, flocks grazed

the tender herb.

15 Here streams run winding about through the bottom of an irriguous valley covered with flowers, which offered riches of various colours, among which shone the rose without

16 There appeared grots impenetrable to the rays of the

sun, and caves in which a delightful coolness reigned.

17 They were covered with vines, which spreading on every side their flexible branches, offered, in abundance, grapes of purple.

¹⁰ But bountiful nature had poured forth numberless beauties on hills, vallies and plains; its riches were profusely spread over open plains, which the morning sun-beams warmed softly, and under the bowers of which the thick shades preserved, during the heat of the day, a delicious coolness.

Down the slope hills, dispers'd, or in a lake, That to the fringed bank with myrtle crown'd Her crystal mirror holds, unite their streams 18. The birds their choir apply; airs, vernal airs, Breathing the smell of field and grove, attune The trembling leaves, while universal Pan Knit with the graces and the hours in dance, Led on th' eternal spring 19.

Here ends the task of the grammarian: the pupil is now acquainted with the language, both in its mechanism and in its genius, and has, besides, been initiated into the first principles of rhetoric and taste. It now rests with the rhetorician to complete what the grammarian could only begin: and this I intend to do, according to my promise, in a future work, but in French.

A FEW DIRECTIONS

FOR FINDING OUT THE GENDER OF NOUNS.

OBSERVATION. We give the name of feminine to any termination in e mute, either alone, or followed by s, as it happens to be either singular or plural, and that of masculine to every other termination. If these two terminations were, in all cases, the marks of the gender of nouns, nothing would be easier than to direct foreigners on a point so perplexing for them: but this, far from being a sure guide, is, on the contrary, the least certain.

¹⁸ The streams, flowing with a soft murmuring, formed agreeable water-falls down the declivity of hills, and dispersed afterwards, or united into a beautiful lake, which offered its mirror of chrystal to its shires covered with flowers and crowned with myrtle.

¹⁹ The birds formed a melodious choir, and the zephirs bringing with them the odorous smell of the vallies and groves, were marmuring among the leaves gently agitated, while Pan, dancing with the graces and the hours, led on the sternal pring.

In order to treat this subject with some degree of precision, we shall divide it into four sections. In the first, we shall examine which are the substantives of species which have a determinate gender, whatever be their terminations. In the second, which are the substantives of species that follow the gender of their termination. In the third, we shall speak of substantives which have a masculine termination. Lastly, in the fourth, of substantives that have a feminine termination. We shall avail ourselves of the work of the Abbé Girard, who has treated this subject much better than any other grammarian.

§. I.

SUBSTANTIVES OF SPECIES, WHICH HAVE A DE-TERMINATE GENDER, WHATEVER BE THEIR TERMINATIONS.

1°. The names of days, months and seasons of the year, are masculine. Automic alone is of both genders, though more commonly feminine.

OBSERVATION. When we join the diminutive mi to the name of a month, this compound word be-

comes feminine: la mi-Juin.

2°. All the names of trees, shrubs, towns, colours, and minerals, are also masculine.

Except, pletine, a metal; vigne, nonce, épine, shrubs.

Observation. If there are some names of towns that are feminine, says the Abbé Girard, they are but few, and even some of them show the gender in an unequivocal manner, being compound of the article, as of a necessary and inseparable part, as: la Rochelle, &c. However, when the termination is feminine, it is more safe to subjoin to it the word ville, as: la ville de Roms.

3°. The names of mountains and winds are also masculine. We except les Alpes, les Pyrennés, les Vosges, les Cardillières, &c. la bise, the north wind.

4°. The nouns of number, ordinal, distributive and proportional; adjectives, infinitives of verbs; adverbs

and prepositions taken substantively, are also masculine.

We except, une moitié, une courbe, une tangente, une

diagonale, une perpendiculaire, une antique,

 5° . All the names of the letters are masculine in the new spelling (Academy), but, in the old, which is now exploded, f, h, l, m, n, r, s, are feminine.

6°. All diminutives follow the gender of the nouns from which they are derived. Globule is masculine, because it is derived from globe, substantive masculine. Pellicule is feminine, because it is derived from peau, substantive feminine.

7°. The names of virtues and qualities are feminine.

We except, courage, mérite.

§. II.

SUBSTANTIVES OF SPECIES, WHICH FOLLOW THE GENDER OF THEIR TERMINATION.

Observation. Here, says the Abbé Girard, the rules are not so certain: when any doubt arises, the dictionary, not the grammar, ought to be consulted.

The substantives of species, which, in general, follow the gender of their termination, are

10. Those of states, empires, kingdoms, provinces

and rivers.

We except, le Mexique, kingdom; le Perche, le Maine, &c. provinces: le Rhone, le Tage, le Danube, &c. rivers.

OBSERVATION. For the names of countries, says the Abbé Girard, I do not see any exception that can ereate a doubt. As to the names of rivers, the masculine termination generally denotes their gender; but there are some exceptions, as: la Lis, a river in Belgium. According to the same grammarian, the feminine termination is divided between both genders.

2°. Those of grains, fruit, flowers, vegetables and

stones.

We except, l'orge, le seigle, le poivre, le sucre, le girofle, le chevre-feuille, le porphire, le sable, l'el-

lébore, le gingembre, l'albâtre, le jaspe, le marbre, le plâtre, la noix, la chaux.

3°. All the parts and appurtenances of a house.

We except, l'office, une clé, un siège, un coffre, un pupitre, le vestibule, un étage, la cour, un poële, un verre, un couvercle, un vase, un portique.

§. III.

SUBSTANTIVES OF MASCULINE TERMINATION.

We place among masculine substantives,

1°. Those which have the last syllable ending in a, or the sound of a, or which have a nasal termination.

We except: part, hart, dent.

20. Those ending in ail, al, eil, el, wil, euil, eu, ieu: travail, local, ciel, scl, wil, fauteuil, jeu, lieu.

3°. Those which have the last syllable in $\hat{\epsilon}$ open, or $\hat{\epsilon}$ close, without being preceded by a t; and in ϵ mute, followed by one or more consonants, except s.

We except: clé, cuiller, nef, forêt, mer.

4°. Those in ai, whether this termination be or be not followed by one or more consonants.

We except: chair, main, faim.

5°. Those in ui or i, followed by consonants or not.

We except: fourmi, merci, brebis, nuit, fin, vis.

6°. Those in au and cau.

We except: eau, peau.

7°. Those in ou, followed by consonants or not.

We except: cour, tour.

8°. Those in b or oi, followed by consonants or not.

We except: dot, mort, foi, loi, soif, voix, noix,

croix, poix.

9°. Those in on, when this nasal termination is preceded neither by an i, a \approx , nor an s.

We except chanson, brisson, cuisson, moisson, façon,

rançon, leçon.

10°. Those in u, followed by a consonant or not.

We except: glu, tribu, voith.

any of the following combinations, are masculine.

But, we place among the feminine,

1°. Those in tie, without exception, and those in té.

Among those of the latter termination, we except: paté, été, arrêté, côté, comité, thé, traité, comté, bénédicité.

2°. Those in eur.

We except: bonheur, malheur, labeur, honneur, deshonneur, cœur, chœur, equateur, extérieur, intérieur and pleurs.

3°. Those in ion, yon, son and zon. We except: alérion, bastion, champion, crayon, embryon, gabion, gallion, horion, lampion, pion, psaltirion, rayon, talion, bluson, gason, horizon, oison, peson, poison, tison, septentrion and scion: to which may be added a few technical terms, others that are obsolete, and some few which are not used in good company.

δ. IV.

SUBSTANTIVES OF FEMININE TERMINATION.

Here, to look for any certain rules would be useless; there is none. Practice alone, with the help of a dictionary, when any doubt arises, is the only way to distinguish the gender of substantives with any degree of certainty. The feminine terminations are so numerous, and liable to so many exceptions, that to endeavour to fix them in the memory would be an irreparable loss of time. Suffice it to say, that these terminations are divided more or less between the two genders, and that there is not one but has as many exceptions as it has words which come under the rule.

Not having received the last edition of the dictionary of the French Academy, till some of the first sheets of this grammar had been printed, I have not had an opportunity of speaking of a few alterations which are to be found in it. Those which I have mentioned had been sent to me from Paris; but I have not always found them so correct as I had reason to expect, I shall mention them in these errata.

Page 2, 1. 36, for a, o, e, i, u, read: a, o, c, u, i.

Page 4, l. 26, for roide, but not in roidir, read : roide, roideur, roidir in conversation: but in solemn speaking, pronounce ad libitum, roide, roideur, roidir,

or rède, rèdeur, rèdir.

Page 12, Add at the bottom of the page: N.B. When the noun of number neuf is followed neither by a substantive, nor an adjective, this letter, is pronounced with its proper sound; we say: neuf et demi; ils étoient neuf en tout ; les neuf arrivèrent à la fois.

Page 14, l. 24, dele fenil, in which the l has the

liquid sound.

Page 15, l. 36, After annal and derivatives, add: annate, annihilation, annihiler, ennéagone, inné, innovation, innover. But the Academy does not mention that pronunciation in annuel, annotation, annuler: therefore, it does no longer take place in these words.

Page 16, after l. 21, add: N. B. P is pronounced in symptomatique, whence we may conclude that it is also sounded in symptome, although the Academy does not mention it. But it is mute in : ademption, redempteur, redemption, dompter, and its derivatives. Such is the present usage, expressed by the Academy.

Ibid. after 1. 30, add: M. B. This letter is always

immediately followed by u, except in some words

where it is final, as in coq, cinq.

Page 18, after 1. 35, add: N. B. "We are to observe," says the Academy, "that, in general, the letter s is but very little sounded at the end of a word, except when the following word begins with a vowel, Thus, in these words: mes propres interests, we sound the s of the last syllable in propres, as if the word pro. pres ended with an e mute, and the next beganwith a z."

Ibid. After OBSERVATION, add: "Compound words," says the Academy, "the simple of which begins with the letter s, followed by a vowel, are generally spelt with ss, that they may be pronounced hard, and not as z: "Such are the words dessus, dessous, desservir, dessécher, &c. There are, however, some exceptions to this rule, such as, vraisemblable, vraisemblance, préséance; but we spell with ss, dissemblable, ressemblant. We write bienséance with one s, but messéant with ss—another perplexity! The e preceding, &c.

Page 19, at the bottom of the page, read: It is observed by the Academy that t is sounded in huit, before a consonant, when that word is taken substantively, as: le huit de Mai; un huit de chiffre; but this observation is not made about the word Sept.

Page 21, after l. 20, add: This letter preserves its ancient name zède, in this proverbial expression only:

il est fait comme un z.

Page 59 1. 25 for given up to, read: given up to

60 l. 12 for of mankind, read of (all) mankind

65 l. 12 for to be, read: to be

Ibid.1. 22 for m. pl. read: funeste m. pl.

72 1. 34 for regardez, read: regarder

73 1. 17 for some winters, read: a winter

89 1. 30 for of time, read: of time

Ibid. 1. 31 for them his, read; them his

93 1. 30 for as to, read: as to

94 1. 10 for of having kept truth, read:
inf-1 tenu art.
having kept truth
inf-1 tenu art.

inf-t tenu art.

166 l. 35. for they may, read: they may

170 l. 35 for to one another, read: to one another, or

of

to one another

178 1. 10 for on a, read: on

180 l. 38 for épouvanter, read: épouvantail

202 1. 35 for besides, read: because

207 1. 8 for the articles are so far, read: the substantives are so far

213 1. 11 for that Henry IV, read: that Henry VI,

220 1. 31 for it is we that, read: it is what we.

CONTENTS.

					Page
Introduction.	-	-	~	-	Ĭ.
	PA	RT I.			
Of words considered as	sound	s	-	-	ibid.
CHAP. I. of vowels		_	-	-	2
Of simple vowels	-	-	-	_	ibid.
A table of simple vowe	els	-	•	-	3
Of nasal vowels	-	-	-	-	5
General principle	-		-	-	ibid.
Am, an, ean, em, en	-	-	-	-	6
Im, in, aim, ain, ein	-	-	-	-	7
Om, on, egu -		-	-	_	ibid.
Um, un, eun	-	-	~	~	ibid.
Of diphthongs	-	•	~	-	ibid.
A table of d phthongs		-	-	~	8
CHAP. II. Of conso	nants	-	-	~	9
Names of consonants		-		-	10.
A table of consonants:	accordi	ng to the	ir proper o	r accide	
sound -		-	-	-	11
A table of soft and ha		onants	-	-	23
CHAP. III. Of sylla	bles	40.	-	-	21
of the accent	-	-	-	-	ibid.
Rules of the accent	-	-		-	25
Of aspiration -	٠,	•	-	-	26
A table of aspirated w	rords	~	-	~	27 29
Of quantity	-	-	-	*	ibid.
Table II. A	_	•	-	-	35
r Die CT.	-	-	· .	_	40
Table III. I Table IV. O	_	-		_	42
Table V. U	_	_	_	_	45
General principles	_	_	_	_	46
A table of words whi	ich hav	c differe	nt meanin	ors. as	they
are pronounced cith				50,	48
Three species of pron			_	_	50
I mee apecies of pro-		RT II.			• •
Of words considered	as signs	s of our t	houghts	-	52
CHAP. I. Of the su			*	-	ibid.
§. I. of the gender o	f substa	intives	-	-	53
§. II. of the number	of subs	tantives	-	-	5.5
CHAP. II. Of the a	irticle	-	p.	€.	57
Elision -	-	-	-	-	58
					Con-

				Page
Contraction -	-	-	-	59
CHAP. II. Of the adjective	-		-	61
How the French adjectives forn	n their fem	inine	-	ibid.
How the plural is formed	-	-	-	63
Degrees of signification -	-		-	64
Agreement of the adjective wit	h th e sub s	tantive		67
Government or regimen of adje	ectives .	-	-	68
Nouns and adjectives of number	-	•	-	70
CHAP. IV. Of the pronoun	-	-	-	71
§. I. of personal pronouns	• 🙃	-	-	ibid.
§. II. of possessive pronouns	-	-	-	76
Of those that are always joined	to a noun	-	-	77
Of those that are never joined t	o a noun	-	-	78
§. III. of relative pronouns	-	-	-	80
§. IV. of absolute pronouns	-	-	-	83
8. V. of demonstrative pronoun	· -	-	-	84
§. VI. of indefinite pronouns	-	••	-	86
Of those which are never joined		antive	-	ibid.
Of those which are always joine	ed to nouns	-	-	90
Of those which are sometimes	joined to r	iouns, and	son	
times not	-	-	-	91
Of those which are followed by	9u e	-	-	9.1
CHAP. V. Of the verb	-	-	-	96
Of conjugations -	-	_	-	98
Conjugation of the auxiliary ve	rb awoir	-	-	.99
Conjugation of the auxiliary ve	rb ctre	-	-	106
First conjugation in er, aimer	-	-	-	114
Second conjugation in ir, 4 brar	iches	-	-	122
Third conjugation in oir	-	-	-	128
Fourth conjugation in re, 5 bran	nches	-	-	130
Conjugation of the reflected ver	rb -	~	~	135
Conjugation of the impersonal	verb	-	-	137
Irregular verbs of the first conj	ugation	-	-	139
Irregular verbs of the second co	onjugation	-	-	141
Irregular verbs of the third cor	ijugation –	-	-	144
Irregular verbs of the fourth co	onjugation		-	147
Of the formation of the tenses	-	-	-	153
Agreement of the verb with th	e subject	-	-	156
Of the government of verbs	-	-	. •	153
Of the nature and use of moods	s and tenses	of the ind	lica-	
tive	-	-	-	109
Of the conditional -	•	-	-	163
Of the imperative -	~	49	-	164
Of the subjunctive -	-	 .		- ibid
Of the infinitive -	→ ,	-	-	165
Of the participle present	-	-	-	160
Of the participle past	-	-	-	167
A amonimons of the participale p	net with its	thoughters:	-	ibid

	4 1
	Page
Agreement of the participle past with its regimen	- 169
CFAP. VI. Of prepositions -	- 175
CHAP. VII. Of the adverb	- 182
Formation of the adverbs	- ibid.
CHAP. VIII. Of conjunctions -	- 186
The different kinds of conjunctions -	- 187
Of the conjunction que	- 190
Government of conjunctions	- 192
Conjunctions which govern the infinitive	- ibid.
Those that govern the indicative -	- 193
Those which govern the subjunctive -	- 194
CHAP. IX. Of interjections	- 195
CHAP. X. General and particular rules of syntax u	non
each sort of words	- itid.
Important preliminary observations -	- 196
How to express in French the preposition to	- ibid.
Of the use of the participle present in English	- ibid.
When are do, did, will, would, should, can, could,	
and might to be considered as mere signs of tenses,	and
	- 197
when are they real verbs?	- 200
§. I. of the substantive	- ibid.
Of the substantive as a subject -	- ibid.
Of the substantive in the form of apostrophe	- 201
Of the substantive as a regimen	
§. II. of the article	- 203
General rules	- ibid.
General principle on the use of the article	- 204
Cases in which we ought to make use of the article	
Cases in which the article is not used -	- 211
A comparative table, in which the same words are	
according to circumstances, either with or without	the
article	- 216
Some idiomatical differences	- 218
A table of nouns construed without either pronou	
preposition, preceded by a verb of which they are	: the
complement	- 919
§. III. of the adjective	- 222
Of the adjective with the article -	- ibid.
A difficulty cleared up	- 225
The place of the adjectives	- 227
Some idiomatical differences	- 231
Adjectives of number	- 232
§. IV. of the pronouns	- 234
Personal pronouns	- ibid.
Cases in which the pronouns elle, elles, eux, lui,	leur,
may apply to things	- 239
The actual use of sor	- 241
A difficulty about the pronoun le cleared up	- 242
Repetition of the personal pronouns	- 214

72		Page
Relation of the pronouns of the third p	ersons to a nou	ın
expressed before		247
The place of personal pronouns		249
Possessive pronouns -		254
Difficulties upon the use of the poss	essive propou	10
cleared up, first difficulty -	cosive pronour	ibid.
Second difficulty		25
Observations on the necessive presents	hiab ana nam	ا وي
Observations on the possessive pronouns	winch are neve	er Ore
joined to nouns	-	258
Relative pronouns		259
On qui		ibid.
Important observation		262
On que	-	263
On lequel		-265
On quoi and où -		-267
Absolute pronouns -		268
Demonstrative pronouns -		270
Demonstrative pronouns On the use of <i>ce</i> employed for a person	or thing before	re
mentioned		. 271
Cr joined to relative pronouns qui, que,	dont and auoi	272
Indefinite pronouns	- una quoi	275
On on -		ibid
A difficulty about chacun cleared up	· .	ibid.
A difficulty about autrui cleared up	•	- 278
On personne	•	279
A difficulty about l'un et l'autre cleared	up -	ibid
A difficulty about tout cleared up	•	- 280
Use of quelque que	-	- 283
§ V. of the verb		- 283
On the use of the two auxiliaries		ibid
Agreement of the verb with its subject	•	- 275
Exceptions	-	ibid.
A difficulty on the collective partitive cl		287
Place of the subject with regard to the v	crb	- 291
Government of the verbs -	-	- 295
Of the use, proper or accidental, of moo	ds and tenses	298
Use of the present	-	1610
Use of the imperfect -	-	- 299
Use of the definite and indefinite preter	its	- 300
Use of the two preterits anterior, and p		301
Reflections on the use of those different		300
Use of the two future tenses	-	- 306
Use of the conditional -	_	- 307
Observation on the use of the conditional	I and future	308
**	ir and ruture	
Use of the subjunctive -		- 31
Relations which the tenses of the indi-	tarive have one	01.
another -	1. 0. 1	- 31.
Relations which the tenses of the su	ibjunctive have	ro .
those of the indicative -		- 01

(397)

		Page
Cases in which we employ the subjunctive	-	313
Observation on the infinitive -		321
§. VI. of prepositions	l.	324
The use of the article with prepositions	-	324
Repetition of prepositions -	-	325
Of the government of prepositions -	~	326
§. VII. of the adverb	-	327
On the negative ne	-	ibid.
Gross mistake of some grammarians on the negatives		328
1. Question. Which is the place of the negatives?		ibid.
2. Question. When are we to make use of pas in pref	er	-
ence to point, and vice versá?	-	ibid.
3. Question. When may we omit both pas and point?		329
4. Question. When ought we to omit both pas and poi	nt?	ibid.
An important explanation -	-	33 3
The place of the adverbs -	-	336
CHAP. XI. Of grammatical construction	-	338
Of inversion	-	342
Of the ellipsis	-	343
Of the pleonasm	-	ibid.
Of the sillepsis	_	344
CHAP. XII. Of grammatical disagreements, amph	ibo	-
logies, and, occasionally, of gallicisms	-	315
Of grammatical disagreements -	-	ibid.
Of amphibologies -	~	346
Of gallicisms	-	347
CHAP. XIII. A treatise on orthography	-	349
Of the printed accents	•	550
Of the apostrophe	•	351
Of the hyphen -	-	352
Of the diaræsis	•	353
Of the cédille	-	354
Of the parenthesis	-	ibid.
Art. I. the orthography of substantives	-	35 5
Art. II. the orthography of adjectives -	-	361
Art. III. the orthography of pronouns -		362
Art. IV. the orthography of verbs -	-	363
Art. V. the orthography of adverbs -	-	366
CHAP. XIV. Of punctuation -	-	368
Of the comma	-	ibid.
Of the semicolon	-	370
Of the colon -	•	ibid.
Of the period -	-	371
Free exercises	•	373
A new direction for finding out the gender of nouns		387
Add tions and corrections -	-	- 391

OUVRAGES

DE M. L'ABBÉ DE LEVIZAC,

Publiés chez Mess. A. Dulau et Co, No. 107, Wardour-Streets.

1°. L'Art de Parler et d'Ecrire correctement la Langue Françoise, ou Nouvelle Grammaire Raisonnée de cette Langue, à l'usage des étrangers qui désirent en connoître à fond les principes et le génie. Svo.

2º. Discours sur l'Article, composé pour l'académie de

M.M. Strahans à Enfield. Svo.

1°. Abrégé de la Grammaire Françoise Raisonnée. In-12mo.

2º. Lettres Choisies de Mesdames de Sévigné et de Maintenon. In-12mo.

3°. Notices sur les Vies de la Fontaine, d'Esope, et de Phèdre, pour servir de préface à la charmante édition des Fables du premier, publiée par Mess. A. Dulau et Co. In-12mo 1799.

1º. A Theoretical and Practical Grammar of the French

Tongue.

2°. Sous Presse. Traité des Sons de la Langue Françoise.

Cet ouvrage sera de la plus grande utilité pour faciliter une bonne prononciation. Il renfermera des vues, des détails et des résultats, dont on ne trouvera nulle part l'ensemble. L'usage actuel y sera exactement marqué.

3º. Sous presse. Le Génie des Ecrivains François, précédé d'un discours sur la versification Françoise, et sur la poésie en général, et accompagné de notes critiques, historiques et

grammaticales. In-12mo.

4º. Sous presse. Les Œuvres de Boileau Despréaux. Précédées d'une notice intéressante sur la vie et sur le génie de ce premier Classique François, et accompagnées de notes critiques, historiques et grammaticales. In 12mo.

Comme il n'y a aucune édition où l'on trouve des notes de ce dernier genre cells-ci sera infiniment plus utile aux étran-

gers que toutes celles qu'on a publiées jusqu'à présent.

5°. Prêt à mettre sous presse. Dialogues en François et en Anglois, sur les sujets les plus propres à former l'esprit, le cœur et le goût, précédés de toutes les formes de la construction Françoise, pour servir d'élémens de conversation.

N. B. Ces quatre ouvrages paroîtront avant le mois de Septembre. Le Traité des sons sera achevé d'imprimer avant le

mois de Juin.

Mr. de Lévizac a également pris des engagements pour publier avant la fin de l'année, deux collections, dont chacune sera de trois volumes in-8vo; collections qui ne pourront qu'être accueillies avec le plus vif intérêt, à cause de leur utilité, et parce qu'elles compléteront le petit cours de littérature des jeunes personnes destinées au grand monde, ou à la jouissance paisible des biens de la fortune.

On trouve aussi chez M.M. A. Dulau et Co. un assortiment complet de livres François, Italiens, Espagnols, Portu-

gais, &c.



ys a

